

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

VOLUME XLV

NOVEMBER 1937

NUMBER 9

Educational News and Editorial Comment

HERE AND THERE AMONG THE HIGH SCHOOLS

The school newsreel.—Western High School of Detroit began its work with a pupil newsreel four years ago. Arthur Stenius, of the faculty of the school, reports that at the time there was some doubt of the future of the activity. Many persons felt that purchase of motion-picture equipment would soon prove a costly mistake of accepting a fad of little value to the extra-curriculum program of the school. It is Mr. Stenius' opinion that today the school has no pupil activity which so clearly justifies its existence.

The newsreel activity was started as a supplement to the school newspaper, and the purchase of equipment was made possible by a favorable financial balance, sufficiently large to make it unnecessary to seek aid from any general school fund. The athletic department was behind the project because bi-weekly pictures of games played or shots at practice promised to increase interest in the athletic program. Furthermore, movies could bring to the auditorium meagerly supported sports, like cross-country races, girls' field hockey, and tennis matches. Other school activities also stood to gain in support through "shots" taken of them for exhibition to pupils.

The cost of necessary newsreel equipment is much less, according

to Stenius, than one might on first thought expect. If the school already has a projector and a screen as part of its visual-instruction equipment, a camera and a few rolls of film are all that are needed for a presentation; and, even if lights for inside pictures, a titler, a light meter, and other bits of equipment are wanted, the cost of all can still be under a hundred dollars. The activities of the average school will not lend themselves to more than an eight- or ten-minute picture every other week (about two hundred feet of film), but an hour's program can readily be built up by a supplementary club program or by rented films of the travelogue, music-appreciation, or animated-cartoon type. The cost of such a program need not be more than ten or twelve dollars.

The newsreel activity at Western High School has been one of increasing interest. The developing of the films is the only step not carried through by the pupils themselves, and they show great ingenuity in taking "shots" and in other steps of the whole process. The following statement by Stenius suggests the broadening scope of the activity.

Every new type of program has pointed the way to other worth-while presentations. A novel class history is available when pictures of each class can be taken and shown to respective classes when class-day exercises are held. A pupil-produced comedy was so successful that a neighborhood theater showed it in place of a regularly scheduled feature. Slow-motion pictures have given coaches aid in showing players certain mistakes, and in such sports as track, where a high jumper or hurdler can gain much by seeing his form, the pictures have been extremely worth while. A special edition of the newsreel makes a fine addition to a parent-teachers' meeting, for no finer way exists by which parents can see what the school is doing. A recent presentation of laboratory techniques promises to unfold another field for the school motion-picture equipment, for pupil-made educational films hold great possibilities. There is no thought of supplanting the regular visual aids, but there are numerous instances where pupil-produced films can supplement lectures, textbooks, and other films.

Extending a guidance program to all a city's junior and senior high schools.—In recent years Central High School of St. Paul, Minnesota, has been developing a program of guidance with limited resources of finance and staff. Notable beginnings had been made by two members of the teaching staff with special interests in problems of pupil personnel, Glenn F. Varner and Milton Hahn. Report now

comes to us that a program of guidance is being developed for all junior and senior high schools of the system. The superintendent, Paul S. Amidon, appointed a committee for the purpose, with Principal J. E. Marshall of Central High School as chairman, made up of representatives from the different schools as well as technical advisers from the University of Minnesota. A first report was made in the late spring, and a simple program was outlined which was put into effect with the opening of schools in September, the expectation being that it would be expanded with accumulating experience.

The Little Theater in Balboa.—From the high school at Balboa, Panama Canal Zone, has been received a folder reviewing the third season of the Little Theater of that institution. It reports the number of productions and of performances during the year, the total number of actors and other workers by sex and by grade in high school (109 of a total enrolment of about 600), and numbers in attendance at the performances. A record of the development over the three-year period is likewise included. A communication from Subert Turbyfill, director of the Little Theater, concludes that participation in the plays is beneficial rather than detrimental to marks received by participants.

Pupils assume responsibility for assembly programs.—L. R. Kilzer, principal of the six-year high school at the University of Wyoming, believes that there is a too-frequent inclination to call in outside talent for high-school assembly programs, that such programs are frequently uninteresting, and that they do not give pupils opportunity to participate. Because of these considerations, the pupil council of his school was given responsibility for practically all assembly programs during the year. The council in turn asked each of the six classes and several extra-curriculum organizations to prepare and put on programs. Principal Kilzer sent in an illustrative program sponsored by pupils in Grade IX, which we do not have space to reproduce.

An unusual program to provide for individual differences.—David Starr Jordan High School of Los Angeles is described by the principal, James Austin Davis, as a six-year school with an enrolment of about fifteen hundred pupils, of whom approximately 25 per cent are white, 41 per cent Mexican, 32 per cent colored, and 2 per cent

Japanese and others. Because of the transient population, the low standard of living, and the lack of cultural ideals and scholastic standing of the community, the senior high school enrolment is relatively small, making up only a fourth of the total in the school. The nature of the pupil population makes difficult the problem of providing for individual differences, the solution of which demands an unconventional approach. The problem is especially difficult at the junior high school level.

The work of assigning pupils to suitable programs centers in a program committee consisting of two vice-principals, the school's counselor, and the heads of the mathematics and English-social-studies departments. The counselor and the two heads of departments on the committee "survey the junior high school, discuss each child as an individual, and place him in the group which seems to suit his need." The judgment of the committee concerning the appropriate group is derived from reports of teachers, principals, welfare workers, and personal contacts. It is aided by results of tests of intelligence and achievement. First placements are tentative, and, if satisfactory adjustments do not ensue, replacements may be made at any time during a semester.

The first step in the placement of incoming pupils of Grade VII is the segregation of the over-age. Because Jordan is a six-year school and because most pupils are lacking in social background and intelligence, it has been deemed unsatisfactory to follow the usual practice in Los Angeles and place all sixteen-year-olds in the senior high school regardless of previous educational experience. Classes of over-age members are organized to include pupils who will not, by normal progression, reach Grade X B at the age of sixteen. Pupils who do exceptional work in these groups, which are designed to compass the minimum essentials of two grades, may be placed on trial in the next higher grade at any time during the semester. If, after a pupil has been doubly promoted, he is still over age, the process is repeated until he reaches Grade IX A. Pupils who are not doubly promoted from Grade VII B have another opportunity in Grade VII A to go to VIII A, and so on. Principal Davis says that the procedure makes possible rapid progress through junior high school grades and aids in retention of self-respect at the same

time that it tends to establish a better educational standard for the rest of the school.

Programming at the junior high school level provides for three other groups: the "definitely subnormal," the "so-called normal pupils," and late entrants. In a recent class in Grade VII B, totaling 225 pupils, 48 had intelligence quotients below 70, while the median for the class was 82. A few of the subnormals continue through the senior high school to graduation, but most of them have dropped out by the end of the tenth year. In the junior high school they are assigned to programs which are apparently like others, but their work parallels the course of study at a lower level. At Grade IX these pupils are guided into industrial and homemaking courses, "carefully geared to their level."

The normal pupils (those with intelligence quotients from 80 to 130) furnish a minor problem only. They are divided into groups on both social and academic bases.

The late entrants, about fifty in a semester, present a serious problem. They would normally fall into one of the first three groups, but a normal program is impossible because of absence from school during the early part of the semester, due usually to seasonal employment. They are scheduled for double time in some subjects, other subjects being omitted. The arrangement implies that they must be specially scheduled for each succeeding semester until they have worked off their deficiencies.

Pupils in senior high school grades fall naturally into their ability level through selection of courses into which they have been guided. The same practice of grouping is carried out in academic classes as is followed in junior high school grades insofar as the limited enrolment permits. "Adaptation of the instruction to individual differences must be taken care of by the teacher in the classroom by means of subclass grouping or individual instruction."

Use of the public-address system in a junior high school.—From Howard F. Shout, chairman of the Radio Education Committee of the Jefferson Intermediate School of Detroit, has been received an account of the beginnings of a promising program of radio education in that school. The major item of equipment is one of the better public-address systems, obtained from memorial funds left by

graduating classes and derived from entertainments. The development in its present stage includes out-of-school programs, in-school programs, and the Jefferson Radio Guild. To bring out-of-school programs into the classroom necessitated making arrangements with the local broadcasting stations, the chains, and special agencies to secure advance information and to make the teachers aware of the programs and help them to use the broadcasts purposefully in their classrooms.

It is Mr. Shout's opinion that the preparation and production of in-school radio programs is the point at which the unique value of the public-address system becomes apparent. In-school uses at Jefferson have included five-minute news broadcasts by teachers, talks by visiting personalities, formal instruction in English and social science, a series of poetry programs, round-table discussions on questions of current interest, and a "Faculty Variety Broadcast," which is a presentation by the teachers of their talents in singing, playing, speaking, and the like.

The Jefferson Radio Guild consists of eight groups of pupils, which meet once each week in regular classes to study radio technique and to plan activities. The groups study various radio manuals and all current literature on the subject. Two bulletin boards are maintained by the guild, one of which displays clippings and general notices on radio. The other is divided into eight columns corresponding to the eight groups and contains assignments for work on programs, special reading, and other duties. The eight groups are concerned with script-writing, music, sound effects, control engineering, microphone, production, publicity, and appraisal.

A FOOD-TRADES HIGH SCHOOL

During the summer, according to the *New York Sun*, the Board of Superintendents forwarded to New York City's Board of Education a proposal to establish this autumn a vocational high school devoted to the training of boys and girls in the various food trades. The school, to be known as the Food Trades Vocational High School, was to be organized by Jacob Simonson, at the time administrative assistant at the Metropolitan Vocational High School, and was scheduled to offer "butcher, baker, grocery, and cafeteria classes now

in the Metropolitan School, as a nucleus, and will add new courses as it grows." Courses in all phases of the food industry will be introduced, including buying, selling, distribution, manufacture, processing, preparation, and service. Courses in the dairy field and the hotel line may also be added. However, no course will be offered unless the committee on food trades of the Advisory Board on Industrial Education gives assurance that graduates can find jobs almost immediately in the particular work for which they have been trained.

Eventually, says the *Sun*, the school officials hope that branches of the school will be established in each of the five boroughs, with one of these branches in the Bronx Terminal Market, if arrangements can be made to open a branch there.

APPRAISING THE EMERGENCY COLLEGIATE CENTERS

Descriptions and evaluations of emergency measures of the depression continue to be prepared and distributed. Reports on these measures are still timely—if their timeliness ever vanishes. Among the best of the investigative appraisals of the emergency educational measures which have come to our attention is one dealing with the Emergency Collegiate Centers of central New York. The authorship of this report is credited to Professor Harry P. Smith, of Syracuse University, although much of the detailed work was done by Russell E. Waitt, assistant director of the project. The study is one of a number financed under the Emergency Relief Act of 1935 and coordinated by Walter J. Greenleaf, specialist in higher education of the United States Office of Education.

The Emergency Collegiate Centers of central New York included ten of the total of twenty-two such units operated in the state under the supervision of some higher institution with the co-operation of the State Department of Education. The centers had two purposes, the first and chief of which was to provide employment for a group of well-trained and qualified persons in need of relief and the other to provide training of college grade for high-school graduates who were unable to find employment or who, for financial reasons, were unable to attend college. The units in central New York were under the supervision of the New York State College of Forestry of Syracuse University. The physical facilities utilized were in most in-

stances inadequate, as is suggested by the fact that half of the centers were housed in elementary schools. For only one or two were the physical accommodations on a par with those of the small liberal-arts college. The majority of the instructors were on relief, and in considerable part they did not compare in qualifications with typical members of college faculties. The courses offered were those usually available in the first two years of colleges of the territory, among the most frequently given being chemistry, economics, English, French, German, history, mathematics, and psychology. It is not feasible to report at length the evidence of the whole study; we quote instead the major portion of the "General Summary and Implications."

The students attending the Emergency Collegiate Centers come from typical American homes. The educational background of these students is not unlike that of other college students. Approximately one out of four has a father or mother who is college trained. A significant proportion of the parents are secondary-school graduates. The fathers are engaged in business or trade, manufacturing, the skilled trades, office-work, agriculture, and to a limited extent the professions. But the economic situation has made it impossible for many of these homes to provide for the children training beyond the secondary school of the home community.

That these Emergency Collegiate Center students are capable of pursuing work of college grade is true beyond reasonable doubt. Their psychological-examination scores place them above the national norms of the test used and equivalent to the norms of the liberal-arts students of a large university which selects its students with care. At the same time their New York Regents examination averages tend to classify them as capable of doing work of college grade.

The students attending the Emergency Collegiate Centers have clearly demonstrated that they can achieve on a high plane. On the basis of a satisfactory criterion of scholarship they equal their more fortunate neighbors who are able to attend a regularly organized institution of higher education. And this seems to be true whether one compares the groups as wholes or selects equivalent groups from the two types of institutions and studies their achievement. When transferred to a university with high standards, they make scholastic records which compare favorably with the records of students who have been in continuous residence since the Freshman year. Subjected to a test of "general culture" after two years of work in the centers, they excel the national norms of that test. And this record is made under faculties less well trained and less experienced than college faculties in general in a physical environment which cannot but constitute a serious handicap. One is led to wonder how well they might achieve under thoroughly trained and experienced faculties in a physical en-

vironment with adequate classrooms, well-equipped laboratories and shops, and well-stocked libraries.

The Emergency Collegiate Centers have served and are serving a group of able young men and women who apparently profit by the work offered. But these centers are by their very nature temporary. It is inevitable that they will be disbanded as a constantly increasing proportion of the better-qualified individuals for whose benefit they were primarily established, secure permanent employment. The able young people, their students, without adequate means—often without employment—will, however, still remain. One wonders how society will ultimately meet that need. Will it be through an upward extension of the American system of publicly supported secondary education, or will it be through the establishment of substantial scholarships granted on the basis of rigid competitive examinations—scholarships in various types of educational institutions that will provide not fees alone but a very substantial part of the living expenses of the individual? There are many precedents for both solutions.

It is significant that the major implication of the study is the alternatives of the public junior college or "substantial scholarships" in higher institutions. These alternatives were not long ago considered in these pages, and the issue involved need not be reopened here except to point out that the extent of aid involved in the second of the alternatives is scholarships "that will provide not fees alone but a very substantial part of the living expenses." Aid in amounts of this magnitude would be required if any large proportion of students from low economic levels would be helped to opportunities for higher education in a measure comparable with the democratization of higher education achieved through the public junior college.

MISDIRECTED PROPAGANDA

From that disinterested yet beneficent organization, the United Brewers Industrial Foundation, have come to the editor's desk two publications. They bear the titles *Brewing and the Public Interest* and *Beer in the American Home*. Be it said, by way of exposition of the functions of the foundation, that it "works with the brewers of America in aligning them with the forces striving for the public good" and that it "is a clearing-house of authoritative information for the public on brewing from every point of view—economics, health, nutrition, and history."

The first of the publications is in the main a collection of addresses purporting to deal with the relations of beer and brewing to public

welfare. Following is the statement which describes the occasion that called for the addresses and which aims to justify putting them into print.

At the Waldorf-Astoria recently, three hundred leaders in the fields of education, social welfare, business, industry, and brewing assembled at luncheon at an occasion which promises to be a milestone, not only in the history of the brewing industry, but also in the relationship of a private profit industry to the public interest.

The event was the inauguration of the United Brewers Industrial Foundation, which the *New York Sun*, in its column report characterized as "enthusiastically launched . . . for the avowed purpose of aligning the industry with every force now working toward the improvement of social and economic conditions in this country."

The occasion aroused and elicited so much interest and so much comment from leaders in education and social welfare, as well as from others who help to make American public opinion, that the United Brewers Industrial Foundation, in acceding to requests, has caused the speeches delivered at the Inaugural Luncheon to be published in this booklet.

The second publication, *Beer in the American Home*, is a beautiful brochure "by Eloise Davison, B.S., Ohio State University, M.S., Iowa State College, Director, New York Herald Tribune Home Institute." Among its chapter titles are "Beer—the Scientific Beverage," "Beer—the Liquid Food," "Beer's Care in the Home," and "Beer in the Menu."

It is not easy to understand why publications like *Brewing and the Public Interest* and *Beer in the American Home* should come to the editorial office of an educational periodical. It may be that the decision by the United Brewers Industrial Foundation to place such journals as the *School Review* on its mailing list is almost on a par with the decision of the management of a moving-picture theater in Chicago to stimulate patronage by giving a small "one-shot" bottle of hard liquor to each child attending children's matinees. It is reported that the management was naïve enough to be surprised when mothers' and parents' organizations in the district remonstrated and threatened a boycott of the theater if the practice was not discontinued. Drinking may have become more prevalent since the days of prohibition, but parents and others of the American populace have not permitted their standards of conduct to degenerate to an extent that would tolerate the advocacy in the schools of the con-

sumption of beer in the home. Nor, by the same token, could a respectable educational journal bring itself to comment favorably on publications like those of the United Brewers Industrial Foundation.

Our advice to the Brewers Foundation, proffered without fee, is that it revise its mailing list and in the process of revision prune out all educational journals. The sole purpose that retaining such periodicals in the list can serve is to stimulate the editors to more vigorous advocacy of consumer education and of inoculation of youth against propaganda, which would surely be a disservice to brewers, distillers, and others of that ilk. The only periodicals needed on the mailing list of the Brewers Foundation are those that carry advertisements of beer and breweries or are otherwise under obligation to the brewing interests.

GRANTS-IN-AID TO JUNIOR-COLLEGE LIBRARIES

The secretary of the Carnegie Corporation of New York, Robert M. Lester, has recently prepared for the information of the trustees of that organization a report entitled *The Development of Junior College Libraries*. The report describes the process by which grants totaling \$300,000 were made to ninety-two junior colleges in the United States for the purchase of books, lists the names and locations of the recipient colleges, and reproduces the standards recommended by the Advisory Group on Junior College Libraries for consideration of all junior colleges and other interested agencies. The Advisory Group, which was composed chiefly of representatives of library interests and of persons in touch with the junior-college movement and which had as chairman William Warner Bishop, librarian at the University of Michigan, began its work in November, 1934. Much time and study were given to a "Request for Information" designed to furnish, so far as possible, an adequate picture of the libraries of junior colleges and of their services. The grants-in-aid were made after a careful study of the returns from the questionnaire and visits of inspection by librarians experienced and trained in surveying libraries and library service. The institutions receiving the grants are distributed to thirty-two states in all sections of the country.

The activities of the Advisory Group included also sponsoring the preparation of *A List of Books for Junior College Libraries*, the final edition of which appeared in book form in June, 1937. The list contains 5,300 titles of books in print and gives prices, publishers, and Library of Congress card numbers for every item.

In the introduction to the report Secretary Lester says, "It is hoped that the present series of grants to aid junior colleges in improving their collections of books for general reading will prove as stimulating to students in this more recent type of college as previous grants have been to those enrolled in colleges of longer standing." It is apparent, therefore, that the grants have been made for the purpose of increasing the reading opportunities of students rather than to recognize the junior college as an institution. The making of grants in such a large total amount by such an important foundation, however, cannot fail to operate as an admission, whether or not by intention, of the achieved place of the junior college in our system of schools.

BULLETINS ON DIVERSE SUBJECTS

In the litter of more or less fugitive materials that have come to the editor's desk are four publications on diverse subjects deserving some special mention.

One of these is an *Annotated Bibliography for Homemaking Instruction in Secondary Schools*, issued as Bulletin Number 4, 1937, of the State Department of Education in California. The bulletin was prepared by Maude I. Murchie, chief of the Bureau of Homemaking Education of the State Department, and is put out as a "list of text and reference books which may be used as a guide by school administrators and teachers in providing suitable . . . material for family life instruction in secondary schools." After five pages of books, bulletins, and magazines designated as "professional literature" appears a long list of textbooks and reference materials, following an alphabetical classification by topics, which appear to be comprehensive of the field of homemaking and which include topics like art, cafeterias, clothing and textiles, family life (the child, the family, marriage, etc.), foods and nutrition, gardening, housing and equipment, and leisure.

Two of the documents are from the United States Office of Education. Leaflet Number 34, *State Library Agencies as Sources of Pictorial Material for Social Studies*, was prepared by Effie G. Bathurst, Elias Katz, and Edith A. Lathrop, associate specialist in school libraries of the Office of Education. Special inquiry found that twenty-nine agencies in twenty-seven states lend pictorial material to schools. These agencies and the topics on which each has materials to lend are listed in the leaflet. The Superintendent of Documents in Washington makes a charge of five cents for a copy of this publication.

The other document from the Office of Education goes by the long name *Review of Conditions and Developments in Education in Rural and Other Sparsely Settled Areas* (Bulletin Number 2, 1937). The bulletin is chapter v of Volume I of the *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1934-36* and is credited (with collaboration) to Katherine M. Cook, chief of the Division of Special Problems. The content provides an excellent summary of the trends of types of schools serving rural areas, of state relationships to such schools, and of organization for local administration and support, as well as descriptions of newer practices in education in nonurban areas. The price of the bulletin is ten cents.

The last of this group of publications is *Public Works Administration Aids to Education*, which reports both graphically and statistically what the P.W.A. has done for the nation's schools. The method of aid has, as is generally known, been that of helping to finance building construction at a time when school enrolments were rapidly increasing and construction of new buildings without outside encouragement had dropped to negligible proportions. We quote a succinct statement in summary of the help provided.

The Federal Emergency Administration of Public Works helped to finance the construction of approximately 70 per cent of all school-building construction in the United States during the past four years.

Public Works Administration has made loan and grant allotments for more than 3,700 school projects, applicants in every state receiving allotments.

Allotments of nearly \$300,000,000 in loans and grants have provided school construction estimated to cost more than \$550,000,000.

More than 6,300 building projects have provided 33,718 additional classrooms and seats for 1,389,655 pupils.

The Public Works Administration also has aided in the construction of: 2,165 auditoriums, 1,720 gymnasiums, 884 libraries, 676 shops, 443 cafeterias, and approximately 6,000 other units including laboratories, study halls, science and commercial rooms.

In addition to information concerning the character and the wide geographic distribution of the construction projects, the bulletin reports analyses of the direct and the indirect employment which they provided and of the materials used. Because no charge for the publication is indicated, it may be assumed that copies are available for free distribution by the Federal Emergency Administration of Public Works.

WHO'S WHO IN THIS ISSUE

PAUL W. TERRY, professor of educational psychology at the University of Alabama. HELEN J. HARTMAN, director of guidance in the Senior High School at Middletown, Ohio. W. R. WIMBISH, superintendent of schools at Forrester, Texas. H. M. LAFFERTY, head of the Education Department at Schreiner Institute, Kerrville, Texas. A. V. OVERN, professor of education at the University of North Dakota. E. A. JERDE, superintendent of schools at Finley, North Dakota. L. R. KILZER, principal of the Secondary Training School and professor of secondary education at the University of Wyoming. MARY ELIZABETH SMITH, instructor in English at the Albert Lea High School, Albert Lea, Minnesota. HARL R. DOUGLASS, professor of secondary education at the University of Minnesota. GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER, dean of the School of Education at Stanford University. GORDON N. MACKENZIE, assistant professor of education at Stanford University.

DEMOCRATIC PRINCIPLES OF SUPERVISION FOR EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES

PAUL W. TERRY
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Whenever a person discusses with a group the problems of the times in which we live, he is certain to discover wide differences of opinion concerning the significance of the social changes that are taking place, a woeful lack of broad understanding, and strong partisan feelings. The multitude of institutions, their sheer size, as well as the destruction of property and life by fierce and widespread conflict, have not only confused the average citizen but have made him very much afraid. Well may he be afraid! For it is not yet known whether he will learn to control the situation in time to save the values of the civilization which he now enjoys—not to consider those greater values of which, from time to time, he has caught entrancing glimpses.

School people are busier than ever with the routine tasks of the institutions for which they are primarily responsible; nevertheless they know about, and are more than ever concerned about, what is happening in the world. When they observe the obvious fear and confusion of grown people, not to mention the callous indifference to the common good of those who seek special privileges for themselves, and when they consider the great social problems of the day, educational leaders realize that they must do all they can to prepare children to cope with problems with more effectiveness and with more enlightened attitudes than their parents have been able to do.

The trained school man knows that it is not enough to give the children an understanding of problems, for many who know do not act according to their knowledge. He must teach the children how to manage institutions; he must give them actual experience in such management; he must train them in the practical skills of leadership and "followership." Even these abilities, however, will be worse than futile if he has not taught them also to keep their minds fixed

devotedly on the democratic ideals of the American people. Adequate preparation is largely, if not entirely, a question of character education that is dynamic enough to count in the daily life of the man on the street.

Fortunately, in the extra-curriculum activities the school has a laboratory magnificently adapted to give training in the practical virtues of a democratic citizenship. Such virtues, however, do not blossom forth without cultivation. To principals or teachers who are in charge of pupil organizations and who understand the potentialities of the social life of the school for the preservation of democratic institutions, scarcely anything is more essential than a sound grasp of the principles of supervision under which the desired traits of character may bloom in full vigor and beauty.

Pupils' organizations appear in great variety of form and purpose. Each organization has problems peculiar to itself. There are, on the other hand, principles of supervision, which, with varying degrees of emphasis, pertain to all. In the paragraphs that follow such of these principles as relate more specifically to the inculcation of desirable traits of character will be stated and briefly elaborated.

1. *Every organization should be managed with a view to the production of educational values.* There is no room in the crowded life of the modern school for anything of lesser importance. It would appear unnecessary to mention this principle (so obvious does it seem); yet the violation of the principle by many schools demands that it be emphasized again and again. The most patent violations occur in connection with the organizations capable of making money. Principals and coaches are often tempted, sometimes they are practically forced, to use athletic teams or dramatic clubs to advertise the town, to earn money for equipment, or to enhance their own reputations. Such cases are inexcusable exploitations of youth and undeniable prostitutions of splendid character-training opportunities.

2. *Every organization should be supervised by a member of the faculty.* In the best schools the presence of a teacher is occasionally needed to maintain order, but the chief reason for the assignment of advisers is to teach the children better ideals and better ways of carrying on than they would discover unaided. Many of the problems which engage the student council, for example, are difficult

enough to challenge the wisdom of maturity. Grown persons are needed to inform the deliberations of children and to make certain that moral values receive attention.

3. *In their activities pupils should be given all the freedom and initiative that they can wisely use.* The best growth of skill and character takes place when children assume responsibility spontaneously and when they feel that the work is their own. Advisers are present as friends and counselors rather than as bosses or dictators; they should keep largely in the background and let the pupils do all the work that they can. We now know that boys and girls are capable of doing reasonably well many things which their parents were never permitted to attempt. At the same time, advisers should be careful to refrain from insisting on adult standards of performance lest the work be theirs and not the pupils' own.

4. *The example of faith in the cultural processes of a democratic society must be set by the principal in his relations with his colleagues of the faculty.* Teachers are not likely to give freedom or to encourage initiative on the part of pupils if they themselves are not accorded these rights by the principal. The principal who is autocratic or domineering with teachers casts a dark shadow across the aspirations of a democratic community, while he who is a leader of the faculty in the modern sense of the word can leaven the entire school with the beneficent influence of an enlightened character.

5. *Membership and participation should be voluntary except in governing organizations, which must demand at least a minimum of attention from all.* No other principle is compatible with the development of sound character in an American community. The school should, however, promote a great enough variety of organizations to appeal to the interests of different pupils, and the adviser and the officers of each group should use every means of persuasion to induce all members to contribute in some way. It is essential that every member should be trained to feel responsible for the success of the society to which he belongs and to take pleasure in doing for it the best that he can.

6. *The opportunities of leadership through office-holding should be distributed widely and should not be limited to a small group of favored pupils.* This end is attainable with the use of "point systems," which

prevent any pupil from holding more than one important office or more than a small number of minor offices. The community needs many trained and experienced leaders, and many pupils have the need and the ability to profit by the experience of holding office. Pupils should be encouraged in this matter, and on every other occasion, to demand as wide a distribution of privileges as is compatible with social efficiency.

7. *Time should be allowed on the daily schedules of advisers who are responsible for exceptionally active organizations, such as glee clubs, newspapers, orchestras, dramatic clubs, student councils, and athletic teams.* If this arrangement is not made, teachers who carry full recitation loads will feel that they have been imposed on—and rightly so. A great deal of work is attached to these responsibilities when properly met. If teachers are harassed for want of time and if they feel that their needs have not been appreciated by the principal, they suffer in mind or in body. Under these conditions they are tempted to neglect the duties of the classroom or to treat advisory responsibilities in a superficial way. If the heart of the adviser is not in it, an organization may continue for a while, but the pupils will be largely left to their own devices and training in the civic virtues will be neglected.

8. *Every organization should make some contribution during its year's work to the good of the student body.* Even the smallest club of the youngest group can find something in its special interests that will amuse or instruct the entire school. Nothing will add more to the pupils' sense of usefulness and to their confidence in themselves than a successful performance before the student body. Confidence in one's ability to serve and pride and pleasure in the doing of it are extremely significant ideals in a highly interdependent society.

9. *When opportunity offers, advisers should encourage the members of their groups consciously to formulate the general principles of conduct which appear to be applicable to the social problems that they are attempting to solve.* A principle is simply a plan for dealing with a situation. Expressing the outcome of an experience in words clarifies the principle and stores up in the mind material for further thought. Nor is there any better way of facilitating the recognition of elements in new problems that are common to those of the past.

Suppose a youthful presiding officer, for example, has just come from a meeting at which he underwent the humiliation of having his fairness questioned by a number of indignant members who claimed that he put an important question to the vote without giving them a chance to "have their say." In conversation with the adviser, if he were led tactfully to formulate the principle that motions on controversial subjects should not be put by the presiding officer until he is certain that all interested parties have had opportunity to express their views, he will have shaped up his experience in such a way as to have it readily available for reference in the future. If he is made to realize that it is a question of fairness, that his position as a leader is at stake, and that the American way of treating controversial questions is one of persuasion and conviction rather than coercion, his character as a leader of the democratic type will be greatly strengthened by that experience.

10. *The finances of all organizations should be managed primarily with a view to teaching pupils honesty and financial probity.* The annual collecting and disbursing of substantial sums by pupil organizations provides a splendid opportunity for teaching children ethical principles in regard to the handling of public money. That more and better training along these lines is greatly needed may be gathered from the reading of newspaper accounts of the administration of the funds of business and of government. Special and intensive training in approved ways of handling public funds can be given to the children who serve as the treasurers of the various groups, and every pupil in the school can be given general knowledge of proper financial methods and a strong appreciation of good financial service when he sees it rendered by his officers.

The best plans of financial administration usually include a general treasurer, a treasurer for each organization, and the budget system. The budget is simply a way of expressing the objectives of the social life of the school in terms of the resources that are available for achieving those objectives. It demands that a central body, such as the student council, consider the projects proposed by all organizations, that it allocate to each organization that part of the available funds which it can use to the best advantage, and that all other moneys be allocated to the general fund which serves the school as

a whole. It is needless to emphasize the fact that the operation of the budget system calls for responsible thinking in terms of the common good on the part of the representatives of every organization in the school.

The general treasurer, who is usually a member of the commercial department, keeps the funds of all organizations. He devises a system of accounting, which the treasurers of all organizations must learn. All checks are signed by the treasurer and the adviser of an organization and by the general treasurer when he has made certain that the expenditure is in the budget. Fortunately, the rules for handling public funds correctly are simple and precise, and they are easily within the comprehension of children of secondary-school age. It is not unreasonable to expect that in the course of a few years this kind of training will make itself felt throughout the nation in a demand that the finances of the public be managed with greater skill and with a higher sense of responsibility to the people.

II. *Every effort should be made by principal and teachers to explain to parents and to the community in general the ideal educational possibilities that lie in the extra-curriculum activities.* Few parents, when they were in school, enjoyed the advantages of extensive programs of pupil activities, and many of them have little confidence in the worth of these organizations. Some adults speak scornfully of such work although they themselves suffer painfully because they are unable to speak in public, preside over meetings, or enjoy fine musical concerts. They fail to see that such inadequacies are traceable to the lack of the opportunities in youth which now they would withhold from their children. Other parents permit their children to be exploited because they do not know that activities ought to be conducted primarily for educational values. On account of this woeful lack among the citizens of intelligence concerning objectives, it is possible in periods of economic distress to starve or destroy pupil organizations in the name of economy. It is clear, therefore, that little progress toward the administration of the extra-curriculum life of the school for character-building purposes can be made until the people of the community have learned to look at these activities as character-building agencies.

Some of the principles above set forth are concerned primarily with efficiency in the management of social groups. All are concerned with the cardinal ideals of a society which intends that each of its members shall have opportunity to develop his potentialities to the utmost, that each shall serve the other, and that all shall participate in the determination of the policies which they are to follow. These principles are designed to prevent the scorching of the budding powers of youth, the development of a few at the expense of the many, and indifference to the common good on the part of those who are strong. These principles require that the principal and the teachers themselves first live up to the democratic ideals of institutional management in their relations with one another. Their example, the insight as to what is good in human relations which they gain thereby, and the enthusiasm which this way of life releases for itself will go far to move their pupils in the same direction. The more these things are done in schools everywhere, the greater may the assurance be that the next generation of citizens will be able to preserve the best of the civilization which they inherit and, on its foundations, to build a structure safer and nobler than any of its predecessors.

PRE-COLLEGE GUIDANCE IN OHIO

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Institutions of higher education in the United States have been severely criticized because of the seemingly unwarranted amount of failure and elimination of students which occurs, particularly during the Freshman year. Parents charge the professors with undue harshness and lack of sympathy in giving marks. Professors register complaints about the poor material which the secondary schools send to them. Many secondary-school administrators curtly reply that these schools can no longer serve primarily as college-preparatory institutions since they must now contend with a much less highly selected group of pupils than that which was formerly enrolled. Thus, responsibility for the existing condition is shifted by many of those persons who should be most vitally concerned with discovering a possible solution to the problem.

However, research investigations have been made, and much has been written on the reasons for this condition. A review of the literature reveals a rather general agreement among educational leaders that the secondary school has failed in three major responsibilities: (1) helping pupils to decide whether they should go to college; (2) giving guidance to pupils who have declared their intention of entering college; and (3) seeking out and properly motivating those pupils who are not considering college entrance but who, because of exceptional ability, ought to do so. The National Survey of Secondary Education revealed that the greatest hindrance to improved articulation between the secondary school and the college is the lack of effective guidance programs in both secondary and higher education.¹

Certain states, including Ohio, are making earnest efforts to

¹ P. Roy Brammell, *Articulation of High School and College*, p. 93. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 10. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932.

develop state-wide programs of pre-college guidance to be administered at the secondary-school level. The purpose of the writer was to discover the extent to which the public secondary schools of first grade in the city school districts of Ohio made provision for pre-college guidance. The data secured for the study pertain to the school year 1934-35. A check list, which included practically all existing pre-college guidance practices, was sent to those principals who had expressed their willingness to co-operate in making the survey. Junior high schools, vocational, technical, and evening high schools were not included. Seventy-three of the 151 possible schools were represented in the study. For purposes of comparison these schools were divided into three groups: (1) small schools, those having enrolments of fewer than 500 pupils; (2) medium-sized schools, those enrolling from 500 to 999 pupils; and (3) large schools, those with enrolments of 1,000 or more pupils. As shown in Table 1, no significant variations occurred in the percentages of schools represented in these enrolment groups. Lack of space prevents the presentation in this report of many comparisons between enrolment groups.

OBJECTIVES OF PRE-COLLEGE GUIDANCE

There is a lack of agreement among educational authorities concerning the scope of guidance. Whether the concept of guidance be broad or narrow, pre-college guidance must be considered as a part of the secondary school's total guidance program. It is essentially a part of the educational and the vocational phases of the concept.

The objectives of pre-college guidance may be summarized as follows: (1) to help the secondary-school pupil obtain information concerning the desirability and the possibility of his securing a higher education; (2) to assist him in understanding the purpose and the functions of the various types of higher institutions, their entrance requirements, their curricular and course offerings, and the abilities and the character traits necessary for attaining success in the institutions; (3) to enable him to secure such information regarding his own abilities and interests as will aid him in making a wise choice of a higher institution and of courses therein; (4) to aid him to gain an insight into student life as it is lived in college.

SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

Data obtained from the check lists are set forth not for the purpose of suggesting desirable practices. That a certain practice was found to be common should not lead to the conclusion that it represented the best practice.

Content of the pre-college guidance program.—A large amount of literature was studied in order to ascertain the opinions of guidance experts concerning the secondary school's responsibility for pre-college guidance. It was believed that the fourteen program features offered on the check list covered the major parts of an adequate pre-college guidance program. Since the Ohio State University Psychological Test and the Further Educational Intentions Blank form an integral part of the Ohio Program of High-School-College Integration, they were included in the list. The purpose of the former test is to discover the scholastic aptitude of high-school pupils; that of the latter instrument is to provide a source of worth-while information concerning a pupil in order that more intelligent pre-college guidance may be given than is possible without it.

Data pertaining to the percentages of schools which incorporated the fourteen program features in their pre-college guidance programs are presented in Table 1. A few outstanding facts should be noted. (1) Cumulative records, valuable as they are when containing the proper kinds of personnel data, did not find wide usage as a source of information for pre-college guidance. Only 47.9 per cent of the 73 schools used these records. (2) The rather low percentages of schools which for purposes of pre-college guidance used the results on the Ohio State University Psychological Test and the information contained on the Further Educational Intentions Blank showed an apparent lack of co-operation with the Ohio Program of High-School-College Integration. (3) The only feature of pre-college guidance reported by more than 90 per cent of the schools was provision for an adequate supply of college catalogues. Only two other features—a study of college-entrance requirements and talks by college representatives—showed percentages of use as high as 75. Only those features most easily provided ranked high. (4) Those features regarded by guidance experts as of major importance—a study of motives for desiring entrance to college, qualifications requisite for

success in college, how to choose a college, and how to secure information from college catalogues—ranked low.

TABLE 1

FEATURES INCLUDED IN PRE-COLLEGE GUIDANCE PROGRAM OF 73
OHIO SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THREE ENROLMENT GROUPS

FEATURE	SCHOOLS WITH ENROLMENTS OF 1-499*		SCHOOLS WITH ENROLMENTS OF 500-999†		SCHOOLS WITH ENROLMENTS OF 1,000 OR MORE‡		ALL SCHOOLS§	
	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent
Used for pre-college guid- ance:								
Cumulative record	8	53.3	14	60.9	13	37.1	35	47.9
Rank on Ohio State Uni- versity Psychological Test	10	66.7	14	60.9	16	45.7	40	54.8
Further Educational In- tentions Blank	9	60.0	15	65.2	7	20.0	31	42.5
Pupils study:								
Valid motives for enter- ing college	5	33.3	6	26.1	11	31.4	22	30.1
Qualifications requisite for success in college . .	8	53.3	6	26.1	16	45.7	30	41.1
College-entrance re- quirements	13	86.7	18	78.3	24	68.6	55	75.3
How to choose a college .	9	60.0	10	43.5	10	28.6	29	39.7
Types of colleges	11	73.3	14	60.9	19	54.3	44	60.3
College catalogues	5	33.3	6	26.1	10	28.6	21	28.8
Life in college	10	66.7	7	30.4	8	22.9	25	34.2
Talks by college represent- atives	13	86.7	20	87.0	25	71.4	58	79.5
Visits to colleges	6	40.0	9	39.1	9	25.7	24	32.9
Adequate supply of college catalogues available to pupils	15	100.0	22	95.7	30	85.7	67	91.8
Adequate supply of guid- ance literature available to pupils	6	40.0	13	56.5	15	42.9	34	46.6

* Includes 15 schools, or 51.7 per cent of the number of schools of that size in the state.

† Includes 23 schools, or 48.9 per cent of the number of schools of that size in the state.

‡ Includes 35 schools, or 46.7 per cent of the number of schools of that size in the state.

§ Includes 73 schools, or 48.3 per cent of the number of schools of first grade in city school districts in the state.

In general, the scope of the program in the individual schools was rather narrow. Only five schools reported the presence in their programs of all the features. The mean number of features reported was

8.4. Although the mean number decreased as the size of enrolment increased, the differences were not of great significance.

That some administrators entertained narrow conceptions of the scope of a pre-college guidance program was illustrated by the special comments which they wrote. One regarded it as consisting in the college-preparatory "course of study." Another considered it as steering pupils into the college-preparatory curriculum and advising them on the proper choice of courses therein. Those who reported that guidance with respect to the features which they checked on the list was incidental guidance only, or that it was given by college representatives, or that the principal gave a talk in assembly once each semester on the subject of going to college, gave evidence leading to the conclusion that little provision was made for a definite program. It is doubtful whether pupils can do much constructive thinking on these problems when their attention is directed toward them only by the cursory methods just mentioned.

Planning the program.—Eighty-two per cent of the schools reported certain functionaries responsible for planning the pre-college guidance program. Ranked according to the percentage of frequency, whether alone or in combination with other functionaries, they stood as follows:

	Per Cent		Per Cent
Principal	76.7	Central authority	5.4
Dean	23.3	Guidance director	1.4
Class adviser	23.3	Y.M.C.A.	1.4
Home-room teacher	21.9	Hi-Y	1.4
Vocational counselor	20.6	Men's service club	1.4
College adviser	5.4		

It is evident that the principal occupied the position of greatest importance. The comparison of the home-room teacher's rank as a functionary in planning the program with his rank in administering the program, given in Table 2, shows that he exchanged positions with the principal.

Staff organization for administration of the program.—The data revealed a wide variety of plans for the organization of the staff for administering the pre-college guidance program. Table 2 reveals that thirteen different functionaries were mentioned. A few facts should be emphasized. (1) The home-room teacher was utilized more

often than any other functionary. Whether the important position which he occupied was a condition to be desired is open to question, since some guidance experts believe that the majority of home-room teachers are not competent to administer a guidance program. (2) The more specialized functionaries, namely, the vocational counselor, the guidance director, the guidance counselor, and the college adviser appeared with relative infrequency. (3) The home-room

TABLE 2
FUNCTIONARIES RESPONSIBLE FOR ADMINISTRATION OF PRE-COLLEGE
GUIDANCE PROGRAM IN 73 OHIO SECONDARY SCHOOLS
IN THREE ENROLMENT GROUPS

FUNCTIONARY	SCHOOLS WITH ENROLMENTS OF 1-499		SCHOOLS WITH ENROLMENTS OF 500-999		SCHOOLS WITH ENROLMENTS OF 1,000 OR MORE		ALL SCHOOLS	
	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent
Home-room teacher.....	4	26.7	14	60.9	16	45.7	34	46.6
Dean.....	3	20.0	9	39.1	17	48.6	29	39.7
Class adviser.....	6	40.0	9	39.1	10	28.6	25	34.2
Principal.....	4	26.7	8	34.8	12	34.3	24	32.9
Vocational counselor.....	1	6.7	3	13.0	9	25.7	13	17.8
Assistant principal.....					5	14.3	5	6.8
College adviser.....					5	14.3	5	6.8
Superintendent of schools.....	2	13.3					2	2.7
All teachers.....	1	6.7	1	4.3			2	2.7
Guidance committee.....					1	2.9	1	1.4
Guidance director.....					1	2.9	1	1.4
Guidance counselor.....					1	2.9	1	1.4
Counselor of pupil's choice.....					1	2.9	1	1.4

teacher and the dean functioned more often in medium-sized and large schools; the class adviser in small and medium-sized schools; and the principal in fairly even percentages in all three groups.

The burden of administration was borne by combinations of functionaries in practically three-fourths of the schools. Twenty-six different combinations were discovered, only one of which (the combination of home-room teacher and class adviser) appeared in as many as eight schools. The larger the enrolment, the smaller became the number of schools which employed one or two functionaries and the greater the number utilizing three, four, or five functionaries.

Comments made by some respondents suggested that staff organization for guidance was an incidental feature in the school program. Two quotations serve as illustrations:

We have no definite pre-college guidance program. What we do along this line is incidental.

Guidance work is done by the principal. The faculty is not kindly toward the guidance movement. Two board members are against it. One of them says, "It is the bunk."

Other respondents regarded mere proximity to a university, together with information concerning its opportunities, as sufficient pre-college guidance for college-bound pupils. Some depended almost wholly on the guidance which college representatives and college students provided. In most cases these persons are merely recruiters for their respective colleges and cannot therefore give the proper type of guidance.

Pupil organization for the administration of the program.—Assuming that pre-college guidance is of vital importance, the advisability of possessing some form of pupil organization to serve as a medium for group guidance can scarcely be questioned. Thirty-three per cent of the schools reported that the home room alone served as the medium; 5 per cent reported some other form of organization; 25 per cent used both the home room and another form of organization; and 37 per cent reported that no definite pupil organization was used. As previously stated, guidance experts challenge the quality and the effectiveness of home-room guidance.

In many of those schools which reported types of organization other than the home room, the scope of the pre-college guidance program appeared to be restricted. In the first place, 68 per cent made membership of college-preparatory pupils a voluntary matter. In the second place, meetings were held only occasionally or several times during the year. Finally, the many meetings with college representatives made these groups recruiting rather than guidance agencies.

Reference must be made to those administrators who were endeavoring to cope with the problem of pre-college guidance. Three principals reported a "college club," in one of which the sponsor was allowed much time for individual conferences. One large city school

devoted one assembly a week to pre-college guidance for Grade XII A. Another placed pre-college guidance problems in one of the units of the twelfth-year "college" English course. A small school in a wealthy suburban community, over 90 per cent of whose graduates entered college, required all Seniors to take a course entitled "Career and College Guidance." Credit was allowed, but not within the sixteen units required for graduation. "With the large number of pupils going to college, we could not do without this course," said the head of this school. In sharp contrast stands the statement made by the principal of a school in a similar suburban community: "About 80 per cent of our graduates go to college. We do not feel that it is necessary to spend much time on pre-college guidance."

Pupil counseling.—Educational leaders believe that individual counseling with all pupils in the secondary school is invaluable as a supplement to group guidance. Pupils who possess superior ability but who are not making plans for obtaining a higher education should be informed of their favorable chances for success in college. On the other hand, those who lack sufficient ability should be informed of their unfavorable prospects.

A study made by Toops of the results of the administration of the Ohio State University Psychological Test revealed that from twelve thousand to seventeen thousand intelligent and scholarly Seniors are graduated annually from the high schools of Ohio who should continue their education but who do not intend to do so.¹ Assuming that lack of proper motivation is one of the reasons for the existence of this condition, by what better method could the secondary school motivate the pupil than by a program of individual counseling? However, only half of the schools made an attempt to counsel individually with such pupils. More astonishing is the fact that fewer than a third made it a matter of practice to provide individual counsel for all pupils who contemplated college entrance.

Follow-up program.—A continuous follow-up of students who go to college is highly desirable as one of the means of discovering weaknesses in secondary-school practices. Sixty-four of the seventy-

¹ Herbert A. Toops, "A Catechism on a State-wide Testing and Guidance Program," p. 2. Columbus, Ohio: Herbert A. Toops (% Ohio State University), 1934 (mimeographed).

three schools obtained the records of some or all of their graduates in attendance at college. This number wanes in significance when it is noted that only 9 per cent of these schools kept the records of all their graduates in college and that only 31 per cent secured them for the duration of the student's entire college career. Only 55 per cent of the schools utilized these data for improving school practices. It appears, therefore, that dormant values inherent in college marks were not utilized to any large extent.

Scholarships and loan funds.—The democratic philosophy of education is that the lack of money or other artificial barriers should not make it impossible for young people of ability and vision to attend college. Thirty schools reported the existence of scholarships or loan funds, the greater number of which were created by private individuals or extra-school organizations. The number of pupils who received aid was small, considering the number who deserve financial assistance. In short, the local communities had not yet assumed the responsibility of democratizing the opportunity for higher education.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

When one views the picture portrayed by the data presented by the check lists from the seventy-three schools, one is impressed by its incompleteness. Some administrators possessed mistaken ideas of the nature of pre-college guidance, while others felt no need for a pre-college guidance program. However, lest the picture appear too dark, it must be recognized that some adventurous spirits were discovered who were attempting to solve the problem in their own schools. Despite the handicaps which the existing type of school organization placed on their ambitions, they were firm in their belief that there are plenty of opportunities which an adventurous personnel may use to give the needed pre-college guidance.

It is evident that any lack of pre-college guidance in the secondary schools of Ohio is due to four general conditions: (1) a lack of interest in the matter on the part of teachers, administrators, and the public, resulting from a failure to study and appreciate the problem; (2) the time element, which spells a full teaching schedule for most teachers; (3) a lack of trained functionaries to provide leadership for planning and administering the guidance program; and (4) a lack of

definite knowledge concerning the experiences of first-year college students for which guidance in the secondary school would be of value.

In the light of these conditions, a number of recommendations may be made. (1) With the abundant literature available, administrators and teachers might profitably engage in a co-operative study of the problem of guidance in all its aspects, thus creating within themselves an interest in, and an appreciation of, the whole matter. (2) Present pre-college guidance practices need to be appraised and further experimentation needs to be conducted for the purpose of discovering the values of the practices. (3) The college should further study the problem and place the results of the studies in the hands of secondary-school administrators and teachers in a form that may be used for pre-college guidance. The pamphlets prepared by the Ohio State University, *A Suggested Program for Pre-college Guidance for High Schools*¹ and *Preparing for College*,² are examples of some of the work done in this field. (4) Despite adverse circumstances resulting from unfavorable types of school organization or from the attitude of laissez faire found among administrators or the public, the secondary schools should make wider use of materials such as the aforementioned and should seize on every opportunity to provide pre-college guidance service. (5) The purpose of the college needs to be re-defined in order that the secondary school may know more definitely what its responsibility is in preparing youth for higher education.

¹ *A Suggested Program of Pre-college Guidance for High Schools*. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University Press, 1929. Pp. 36.

² *Preparing for College*. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University Press, 1935. Pp. vi+38.

THE HOME-TALENT TEACHER

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Many school boards, when the problem of employing new teachers has presented itself, have discriminated between home-talent and foreign-talent teachers. To some school boards the employment of local teachers, regardless of their qualifications, is looked on as (1) an intelligent and an economical investment, (2) an insurance against teacher transiency, and (3) an obligation to local taxpayers. Other school boards discourage the employment of local teachers in an attempt (1) to minimize the influence of local politics, (2) to facilitate dismissals in the case of unsatisfactory teachers, and (3) to insure the selection of properly qualified and adequately trained applicants. The fallacy of allowing factors other than merit to influence the selection of teachers is pointed out by Cubberley:

The schools exist, in no sense, to afford places for teachers. No one is entitled by right to a teacher's position, except on the one basis of being the best prepared and the most professionally in earnest teacher available. In no way should the schools be made local family affairs, or used for local charitable, political, social, or religious purposes.¹

In an attempt to compare the home-talent teacher with the foreign-talent teacher in such matters as age, marital status, years of experience and tenure, and salaries, forty-nine small city school systems located in cities with populations of less than five thousand were chosen for study in the school year 1934-35. In each case the records available in the Texas State Department of Education furnished the sole source of information. Twenty-three of these school systems are in cities with populations of less than twenty-five hundred (Group A); twenty-six of the school systems are in cities with

¹ Ellwood P. Cubberley, *Public School Administration*, pp. 308-9. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1929 (revised).

populations of twenty-five hundred to five thousand (Group B). In each case the permanent residence of the teacher was designated by the school superintendent.

Home-talent teachers are older than foreign-talent teachers. The minimum age at which a person can hope to fill a teaching position efficiently, while varying in individual cases, is commonly accepted

TABLE 1
COMPARISON OF AGES OF HOME-TALENT AND FOREIGN-TALENT
TEACHERS IN TWO GROUPS OF TEXAS CITIES

GROUP	WOMEN TEACHERS			MEN TEACHERS		
	Number of Teachers	Median Age	Average Age	Number of Teachers	Median Age	Average Age
Group A (cities with populations of less than 2,500):						
Home talent. . . .	111	30	32.3	15	29	30.5
Foreign talent. . . .	165	26	27.5	71	27	27.7
Group B (cities with populations of 2,500-5,000):						
Home talent. . . .	187	31	33.6	42	32	35.2
Foreign talent. . . .	266	28	29.5	135	30	31.0
Groups A and B:						
Home talent. . . .	298	31	33.1	57	32	33.9
Foreign talent. . . .	431	27	28.7	206	29	29.9

as twenty years. Similarly, any person who is beyond sixty years of age is considered to have outlived his efficiency in the public-school teaching field. The forty-year interim between the ages of twenty and sixty represents the normal span of productivity for the average public-school teacher.

According to Table 1, the average and the median ages of the home-talent teachers, men and women, are larger than the average and the median ages of the foreign-talent teachers. In the case of the combined Groups A and B the median age of the home-talent women teachers is four years in excess of that of the foreign-talent women teachers. Similarly, in the case of the men the median age of

the home-talent teachers is three years above that of the foreign-talent teachers. The larger city school systems appear to attract a slightly older teaching staff. In Group A, among the women, 2.7 per cent of the home-talent teachers and 0.6 per cent of foreign-talent teachers are sixty years of age or older. None of the men teachers in Group A has reached the age of sixty. Among the women in Group B, 1.6 per cent of the home-talent teachers are sixty or more years of age, while among the men 5.7 per cent of the home-talent teachers have attained that advanced age. No foreign-talent teacher in the schools of Group B is sixty years of age or older.

More home-talent teachers than foreign-talent teachers are married. A partial explanation is that home-talent teachers are older and hence are more likely to have assumed the responsibilities of marriage. Does marriage increase or impair a woman's efficiency as a school teacher? This issue has long been provocative of argument. To some school boards and school superintendents, the married woman teacher is a teacher whose interests are divided between home and school. Other school boards and school superintendents consider the married woman teacher a superior teacher by reason of her experience as a parent. Despite the contentions of educational leaders that efficiency should be the sole criterion for evaluating the worth of a teaching applicant, numerous school systems continue to penalize the married woman teacher. In most instances the penalty falls more heavily on the foreign-talent teacher than on the local teacher because, in the case of the latter, prejudices are frequently tempered with consideration of community "interests."

In the case of the women teachers in the 49 small city school systems in Texas, a larger percentage of home-talent teachers than of foreign-talent teachers are married: 27 per cent of the local teachers are married as compared with 12.5 per cent of the outside teachers. Similarly, the percentage of home-talent teachers who are widows exceeds by 7 the corresponding percentage of foreign-talent teachers. The percentage of married women teachers in the larger schools of Group B is 12 more than the percentage in the smaller schools represented in Group A.

Home-talent teachers, as a group, are more experienced and have

longer tenure than foreign-talent teachers. Since home-talent teachers are older than foreign-talent teachers, it is possible that the advantage in experience and tenure enjoyed by the former may not be so great as the figures show. The increased number of available teachers has enabled the public schools to establish regulations requiring that all teachers entering the system for the first time have one, two, or more years of experience. New teachers are finding it increasingly difficult to locate in positions commensurate with their training without first serving practically an apprenticeship in order to secure the benefits of experience. Just where the factor of "experience" ceases to contribute materially to effective teaching varies, of course, with individual teachers. Some persons believe, however, that after six or seven years of teaching an instructor ceases to improve by experience and that few teachers show a great deal of improvement after two or three years in one position.

In the case of the forty-nine small city school systems studied, the home-talent teachers have the greater number of years of experience and tenure. The median experience of the home-talent teachers is ten years, and that of the foreign-talent teachers is seven years. Similarly, in Group A the median tenure of the home-talent women teachers is six years, while the median tenure of the foreign-talent women teachers is two years. In Group B the median tenure of the home-talent women teachers (six years) is twice as long as the median tenure of the outside teachers. For the men teachers of Group A the median tenure of the home-talent teachers (four years) is twice as long as the median tenure of the foreign-talent teachers. In Group B the home-talent men teachers have a median tenure of six years compared with the four-year median of the foreign-talent men teachers.

The shortness of the tenure of the foreign-talent teachers is attributable to two factors: (1) the facility with which school executives can dismiss inefficient foreign-talent teachers and (2) the small unattractive salaries, coupled with all the disadvantages of a small town. The longer tenure of the home-talent teachers is explainable on the grounds (1) that many home-talent teachers prefer to retain their home and community interests rather than to accept positions

away from home; (2) that home-talent teachers can afford to work for smaller salaries than can foreign-talent teachers because their living expenses are not so great; (3) that, because of political and social influences, home-talent teachers are often more secure in their positions and are able to retain their positions longer than are foreign-talent teachers; and (4) that many home-talent teachers refuse promotions because of home relationships.

TABLE 2
COMPARISON OF SALARIES PAID TO HOME-TALENT AND
FOREIGN-TALENT TEACHERS IN TWO GROUPS
OF TEXAS CITIES

GROUP	WOMEN TEACHERS			MEN TEACHERS		
	Number of Teachers	Range of Salaries	Median Salary	Number of Teachers	Range of Salaries	Median Salary
Group A (cities with populations of less than 2,500):						
Home talent.....	111	\$674- 974	\$811	15	\$724-1,524	\$ 910
Foreign talent.....	165	742-1,151	853	71	824-1,299	1,062
Group B (cities with populations of 2,500-5,000):						
Home talent.....	187	668-1,074	805	42	674-1,541	983
Foreign talent.....	266	\$713-1,186	\$838	135	\$849-1,537	\$1,183

Foreign-talent teachers receive higher salaries than do home-talent teachers. The success of a school's instructional program is, to a large extent, dependent on the training and the efficiency of its teachers. The quality of a school's teaching staff is, in turn, dependent on the salaries paid. The success of a school's instructional program therefore bears a definite relation to the salaries paid. A school that hopes to maintain a superior type of work must be prepared to pay for that superiority in the form of higher salaries.

One commonly listed advantage accruing from the employment of local teachers is that, training and efficiency being equated, home-talent teachers will work for less money than will outside teachers. Whether the factor of teacher qualification is always considered on

a parity with the factor of economy is a debatable question. As far as the present study is concerned, no inference is made regarding the quality of home-talent teaching.

A comparison of the salaries paid home-talent and foreign-talent teachers is given in Table 2. The medians justify the contention that, from the standpoint of money paid out for salaries, the local teacher is the more economical investment.

This study has not attempted to draw any conclusions, nor has it sought to establish the superiority or the inferiority of the home-talent teacher. This investigation merely suggests comparative studies of the instructional staff which might profitably be made by many school systems.

DORMITORIES FOR HIGH SCHOOLS

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WHY THE STUDY WAS MADE

The encouragement given by village and city high schools to the enrolment of graduates of the one-room rural and small graded schools in the neighborhood has brought with it a problem of housing, particularly in small communities. The situation in one village in North Dakota revealed such a shortage of satisfactory living facilities for high-school pupils from outside the school district that a further study was stimulated of what might be done to remedy the condition. One possibility seemed to be the operation of well-supervised dormitories. Hence it was decided to investigate the high-school dormitories operating in the United States in order to gather factual evidence which would help determine their adaptability to the situation in North Dakota.

In the community mentioned rural pupils were found crowded into small rooms with poor ventilation. Some pupils attempted to do light housekeeping in order to stretch their meager resources, but they were not able to find satisfactory housing facilities for such ventures. Many pupils lived on diets which did not supply body-building and energy-inducing elements in sufficient quantities and in proper proportions—an observation which was similar to the findings of investigations previously reported.

NATURE OF THE STUDY

The present study attempted to accumulate and to condense into usable form the existing information concerning high-school dormitories, with the following main purposes in view: (1) to learn the reasons for the organization of dormitories, (2) to study the manner of operating them, (3) to investigate the effectiveness of the

supervision given them, and (4) to evaluate their adaptability to the conditions known to exist in large sections of North Dakota and certain other states. All available sources of information on the subject were canvassed. A brief inquiry was directed to the department of public instruction in each state in order to obtain the addresses of high schools conducting dormitories and any other pertinent information available. A second inquiry was sent to each community reported by the state department to be operating a dormitory. The distribution of the replies given in Table 1 indi-

TABLE 1
NUMBER OF SCHOOLS OPERATING DORMITORIES
FOR HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS

State	Number Reported by State De- partment of Education	Number from Which Reports Were Received	Number Having Ceased To Operate Dormitories*
Colorado.....	2	1	1
Minnesota.....	1	1
Montana.....	20	15	8
Nebraska.....	1	1
Nevada.....	3	3
Oregon.....	1	1
South Dakota.....	143	44
Total.....	171	66	9

* This table is to be interpreted to read that nine of the sixty-six schools from which reports were received had ceased to operate dormitories.

cates that most of the dormitories were operating in South Dakota and that their popularity had waxed and waned again in Montana. Certain other states had scarcely given dormitories a trial, and North Dakota had none.

According to the information received, the first high-school dormitory was established in 1914 in connection with the Flathead County High School at Kalispell, Montana. By 1926 twenty high-school dormitories were operating in Montana: six in connection with county high schools, seven in connection with second-class high schools, and seven in connection with third-class high schools. Fifteen of those twenty high schools returned the inquiry blanks sent to them in the present study, but eight of the fifteen reported

that their dormitories had been closed and had not been in operation for from three to eight years.

From 1926 to 1930 three more high-school dormitories were established in the United States, but none were established during the three years following 1930. In South Dakota a large number of dormitories were established in 1934 as projects of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, forty-four of which reported in this study. The dates of establishment of the remainder of the 143 dormitories reported by the State Department of Public Instruction were not secured, but it was assumed that all were established in 1934 because in that year the state legislature of South Dakota passed a law authorizing the establishment of high-school dormitories. The establishment and maintenance of dormitories in South Dakota was chiefly a project of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration.

REASONS FOR ESTABLISHMENT OF DORMITORIES

The reasons for the establishment of dormitories may be inferred from the reasons given for discontinuing the nine which had ceased to operate. A school at Julesburg, Colorado, reported that its dormitory had been discontinued (1) because it did not pay the cost of operation; (2) because it had a small patronage, which had been made still smaller by the advent of the automobile; and (3) because the "grief" connected with operating it was more than it was worth. The eight schools in Montana which had ceased to operate their dormitories stated various reasons: (1) The dormitory was too expensive. (2) Pupils could stay at private places for less than the dormitory charged. (3) It failed to be self-supporting. (4) It was no longer necessary because of improved roads. (5) It was made unnecessary by the substitution of school buses. A report from Pennsylvania stated that the density of population made high-school dormitories unnecessary, although one small school had operated a dormitory some years ago. The state superintendent's office in Alabama reported that a few dormitories had once been operated there but that they had been discontinued as a result of the consolidation of schools and better transportation. These reasons for the abandonment of dormitories in some communities

suggest opposite reasons which make them seem desirable in other communities.

MANNER OF OPERATING HIGH-SCHOOL DORMITORIES

At the time of this investigation thirty-eight of the fifty-seven schools which were still operating dormitories had two each, one for boys and the other for girls. Nineteen others housed both sexes in the same buildings but in separate wings or on separate floors. The largest enrolment reported was one hundred pupils; the smallest, eight; and the average, thirty. The dormitories were operated for the most part in districts in which it seemed impractical to transport pupils to and from their homes daily. In the western parts of South Dakota and Montana pupils must often travel long distances to reach the dormitories. Although the dormitories were operated for the sole purpose of creating suitable living conditions at reasonable cost for the pupils attending high school, most of the schools permitted pupils to live elsewhere if they found accommodations which they and their parents preferred. All the dormitories which reported to this study were operating in communities in which school was in session for nine months of the year. Fifty-four of the sixty-six schools reporting testified that their dormitories had been successful and twelve that they had not been successful. Nine of the unsuccessful dormitories had ceased to operate. Thirty of the fifty-four successful dormitories indicated that their success was becoming more evident, while eight said that it was declining.

At the time of the study only rural pupils were living in the dormitories—a fact which indicates that these institutions really were serving the purpose of extending school privileges to pupils in rural districts. In fifty of the communities the pupils were not required to stay for the full nine months in the dormitory but might drive back and forth from home during the pleasant months in the spring and the autumn when the roads were good. In only seven of the dormitories were the pupils required to stay the full period of nine months if they entered at all.

The longest distance traveled by any pupil to a dormitory was reported as one hundred miles. The shortest distance was one and a half miles. Average distances ranged from five miles to sixty

miles. In thirteen dormitories the average travel distance for one way ranged from twenty miles to fifty miles. Such distances indicate the difficulties of pupils in sparsely settled regions if they wish to attend high school. A view of the extreme travel distances is still more emphatic. One dormitory reported the longest one-way distance to be between eighty-six and ninety miles, another between seventy-one and seventy-five miles. Four more reported it to be from forty-one to forty-five miles, and twenty-one reported the longest distance to be between twenty-six and forty miles. These facts indicate that it would be impractical in many of the districts conducting dormitories to substitute daily transportation.

DIVERSE ASPECTS OF ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

Management and help.—In almost all the fifty-seven schools which were operating dormitories, the superintendent of the local high school was chiefly responsible for the supervision and management of the dormitory. In one case the clerk of the school district took the responsibility; in another the matron and the board of education acted together. Various types of personnel were employed, such as dean of boys, dean of girls, cook, janitor, nurse, student help, and other assistants.

Schedules.—All the schools reporting to this study indicated the schedules of their dormitories even though some had ceased operation. Sixty of the sixty-six schools maintained regular study hours in the evening for the pupils. The study hours in twelve dormitories were from seven to nine o'clock, but thirty-three others reported study periods of one or two hours beginning at some time after half-past seven and ending at ten o'clock. Most of the dormitories followed regular schedules throughout the day. Sixty-five had regular hours for meals and for rising in the morning, and sixty had regular hours for retiring. All sixty-six permitted pupils to spend week ends at home—the time from Friday afternoon until Monday morning or any part thereof.

Provision for recreation.—Regular hours for recreation in some form or another were scheduled by the administration in forty-nine dormitories. Thirty-two reported athletics. Two provided

basketball and five provided indoor tennis as winter activities for the pupils. In general, these activities were carried on at regularly scheduled times. Thirty dormitories reported social parties, seven played games, seven used music, and seven outdoor activities, as recreation. Among the forms of recreation listed specifically were "wiener roasts," Valentine parties, taffy pulls, skating parties, sewing, "socials," hikes, cards, and clubs.

Inspection.—Sixty-one dormitories reported regular inspection of living quarters. In most of them inspection was conducted once a day. Thirty indicated that inspections were made by the dean and five by the superintendent. Five had weekly inspections—one made by the dean and the other four by the superintendent. Six reported monthly inspections—one by the dean and five by the superintendent. Seven others reported that inspections were made irregularly—in two by the dean, in one by the superintendent, and in the other four by the school officers. Health examinations by doctor or nurse were made daily in five dormitories, weekly in three, bi-weekly in one, monthly in seven, bimonthly in seven, semiannually in six, annually in twelve, irregularly in five, and only when requested in eight dormitories. Twelve failed to report on this point.

COST OF OPERATING DORMITORIES

In the year 1934-35 South Dakota had 143 dormitories supported largely by the Federal Emergency Relief Administration. Forty-four of these were investigated in connection with this study. In all, sixty-one dormitories reported their costs. The annual expense of maintaining the dormitories ranged from \$1,620 to \$10,932. The school with the highest cost maintained separate dormitories for boys and girls and cared for one hundred pupils. The school with the lowest cost cared for twenty-seven pupils in a single dormitory for both sexes. The daily cost of operation per pupil differed greatly, ranging from \$0.36 to \$1.68 in single schools. The details of cost of operation are shown in Table 2.

The average cost of operation was \$3,560 per dormitory per year for the sixty-one dormitories studied. The average cost for the forty-four F.E.R.A. dormitories in South Dakota was \$3,364; for the non-F.E.R.A. dormitories in this study, the average was \$4,027.

A report from the Federal Emergency Relief Administration operating in South Dakota, based on one hundred dormitories, gave \$4,138 as an average cost for the first year of operation. Half the schools reported that the operation of dormitories had reduced their transportation costs; the other half reported that it had not. Fifteen stated that transportation was not paid for by the district, and nine stated that it was impossible to transport pupils to their schools day by day.

Fifty-one agreed that the high-school dormitories reduced the cost of living to the pupils who lived in them. In many of them the

TABLE 2
TOTAL ANNUAL EXPENDITURE AND DAILY COST OF
OPERATION PER PUPIL IN SIXTY-ONE HIGH-
SCHOOL DORMITORIES

Total Annual Expenditure	Number of Dormitories	Average Daily Cost per Pupil
\$9,000-10,999	1	\$0.68
7,000- 8,999	3	.80
5,000- 6,999	5	1.24
3,000- 4,999	25	.66
1,000- 2,999	27	0.76
All schools	61	\$0.76

pupils did not pay as much as it cost to operate the dormitory, and in a number of them the daily cost of operation per pupil was less than the daily cost per pupil living outside the dormitory.

SIGNIFICANCE OF DORMITORIES

The following advantages of dormitories were reported by fifty-six schools: (1) More rural pupils are in attendance. (2) They reduce the expenses of the pupils. (3) They furnish better living conditions. (4) They allow better supervision of rural pupils. (5) They provide better social training. Thirty-six schools reported that they had discovered the following disadvantages: (1) expense of maintaining dormitories, (2) difficulty of finding qualified matrons, and (3) lack of parental co-operation.

In general, the schools were in favor of continuing the opera-

tion of their dormitories. Those which admitted that they had been unsuccessful attributed their failure to their inability to make the dormitories self-supporting. No dormitory charged pupil fees that were as great as the daily cost of operation, the difference being met either by the school district or by the Federal Emergency Relief Administration. Some schools, however, reported an increased amount of tuition resulting from the operation of dormitories. The majority of the schools agreed that the dormitories had provided better living quarters for rural pupils in sparsely settled areas. It seems, then, that school districts which desire to maintain high-school dormitories must be willing to assume extra responsibilities, both supervisory and administrative, to achieve the end of improving the living conditions of rural pupils attending their schools.

The increased enrolment of rural pupils, which seems to take place when dormitories are established, helps the social situation in the small village high schools. It also increases the income from tuition, although this increase may not be sufficient to care for the increased costs to the district resulting from the operation of the dormitory.

HOW LOCAL PUBLIC JUNIOR COLLEGES ARE FINANCED

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On December 1, 1936, Campbell¹ reported in operation in the United States a total of 527 junior colleges (excluding one college in the Canal Zone), of which 299 (56.7 per cent) were classified as private and 228 (43.3 per cent) as public. During the first semester of the school year 1936-37 the present writer made a study² of local public junior colleges in all states where such institutions were then in operation. The state department of education in each of the forty-eight states was asked to fill out a pertinent questionnaire and to provide a list of all local public junior colleges then operating in connection with local public-school systems in the state. Reports were received from the departments in all except four states: Maryland, Massachusetts, Oklahoma, and South Carolina. Information gathered from various other sources indicates that, of these four, only Oklahoma has public junior colleges of *any* type. Since no list of junior colleges was submitted for Oklahoma, a list for that state was obtained from Campbell's directory.

On the basis of the lists of junior colleges thus obtained, it appears that approximately 175 local public junior colleges were operated in connection with local public-school systems during the school year 1936-37. Questionnaires were sent to a sampling of 125 of these junior colleges, and 78 usable reports were received in time to be incorporated in the present investigation. These were distributed as shown in Table 1.

¹ Doak S. Campbell, "Directory of the Junior College, 1937," *Junior College Journal*, VII (January, 1937), 209-23.

² L. R. Kilzer, "A Study of Certain Local Public Junior Colleges," *American School Board Journal*, XCIV (April, 1937), 31-33, 94.

It will be noted that the seventy-eight local public junior colleges included in the present study are located in seventeen states. Biltmore Junior College at Asheville, North Carolina, was in state of transition to a public junior college, and consequently its dean sent no report. It appears, therefore, that the total should be eighteen states instead of seventeen.

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION OF 78 PUBLIC JUNIOR COLLEGES INCLUDED
IN THIS STUDY ACCORDING TO GEOGRAPHICAL
LOCATION

State	Number of Colleges	State	Number of Colleges
Arizona.....	2	Mississippi.....	2
Arkansas.....	2	Missouri.....	5
California.....	8	Nebraska.....	2
Georgia.....	1	New Jersey.....	2
Illinois.....	3	Oklahoma.....	3
Indiana.....	1	Texas.....	6
Iowa.....	20	Washington.....	1
Kansas.....	9		
Michigan.....	7	Total.....	78
Minnesota.....	4		

ANNUAL INSTRUCTIONAL COSTS

Owing to the fact that the costs of establishing and operating the local high school and the local public junior college are often inextricably combined, it is impossible in many cases to allocate expenditures accurately. A few notations taken from the questionnaires filled out by officials in nine local public junior colleges in nine states will suffice to make this difficulty apparent:

The support is by tuition alone except that the high-school district provides the building.—Fort Smith (Arkansas) Junior College.

Annual instructional cost is figured on high-school basis, about \$190. Teachers divide time between junior college and high school.—Antelope Valley Junior College, Lancaster, California.

Local district furnishes place, and tuition is largely to cover current expenses.—Lyons Township Junior College, La Grange, Illinois.

The local high school provides classrooms and library. It is difficult to determine actually whether part of the tax goes for junior-college support. The

tuition, as it is now, takes care of the junior-college budget.—Sheldon (Iowa) Junior College.

Support is by the school district. The junior college is not budgeted separately.—Bay City (Michigan) Junior College.

The rate is for the entire school district. There is no separate levy.—St. Joseph (Missouri) Junior College.

The Morristown Board of Education gives us the use of unused portions of one of their older buildings, but we are independent in finding our salaries, etc.—Morris County Junior College, Morristown, New Jersey.

Plant cost is carried by the high school; instructional cost by tuition, approximately.—Bartlesville (Oklahoma) Junior College.

Lamar is administered by the South Park Independent School District, which furnishes three buildings and equipment. Tuition charge takes care of faculty and running expense.—Lamar College, Beaumont, Texas.

It seems safe to conclude that neither the entire cost (capital outlay plus current expenses) nor even the pure instructional cost is always kept separate for high school and junior college and that in some cases the cost of maintaining the junior college is not separated from the cost of maintaining the entire school system (kindergarten plus Grades I–XIV, inclusive). Some of the figures reported by respondents in this study are undoubtedly mere estimates rather than exact figures scientifically determined.

The figures reported as annual instructional costs by officials in local public junior colleges are seldom comparable because scarcely any two of these officials compute such costs on the same basis. For the forty-nine local public junior colleges here reporting annual instructional costs per student enrolled, the range is from \$50 to \$310. For the forty-one local public junior colleges here reporting annual instructional costs per student in average daily attendance, the range is from \$65 to \$250. Variations in true instructional costs on both bases are to be expected, but such extreme variations indicate that computations have been made on different bases.

SOURCES OF SUPPORT

Tuition.—Data provided by officials in sixty-nine local public junior colleges indicate that local students pay an average of \$68.30 annually for tuition, that the median charge is \$76.14, and that the range is from no charge (in nineteen institutions) to \$150 at Morristown, New Jersey. In one junior college the tuition is \$5.00 per

semester hour, and in another it is \$4.50 per semester hour for local students. Data from fifty-three local public junior colleges indicate that the average tuition charged nonlocal students is \$104.01, that the median is \$102.08, and that the range is from only \$20 a year at Thatcher, Arizona, and Coleraine, Minnesota, to \$450 (frankly admitted to be prohibitive) at Cicero, Illinois. In one junior college the tuition for nonresident students is \$4.50 per semester hour. Comparison of these data shows that the average tuition charged nonlocal students is \$35.71 (52.3 per cent) higher than that charged local students, and that the median tuition charged nonlocal students is \$25.94 (34.1 per cent) higher than that charged local students. Twenty-eight (50 per cent) of the fifty-six local public junior colleges which provided adequate data pertaining to the tuition charged both local and nonlocal students reported that exactly the same amount is charged irrespective of residence, and in twenty-eight of these fifty-six local public junior colleges nonresident students are charged a higher rate of tuition than are local students.

Charges other than tuition.—The present study did not succeed in obtaining adequate data relative to charges other than tuition. In some cases the respondent recorded merely the activities or incidental-fee charge, while in other cases the figure recorded obviously included also matriculation, late-registration, and laboratory fees. There is ample evidence, however, to indicate that nonlocal students and local students almost always pay exactly the same kinds and the same amounts of fees other than tuition. An activities fee is charged in almost all local public junior colleges, and it varies from about one dollar to more than ten dollars annually. In the majority of these colleges this fee is from five to ten dollars annually. Laboratory fees vary from school to school and from subject to subject within the same school.

Assessed valuations in areas organized for local public junior colleges.—The state departments of education in twelve of the states where local public junior colleges are in operation failed to provide data pertaining to the minimum assessed valuation legally required in areas which may organize a local public junior college. The silence of some of these state departments of education is undoubtedly due to the fact that no minimum legal restriction has been set up. The

following information was, however, provided by respondents in six state departments of education: In Arkansas and Kansas there is no legal minimum. In Minnesota the minimum is \$3,000,000. In Nebraska the minimum is \$5,000,000. In Mississippi the minimum is \$20,000,000. In California no junior-college district may be formed unless the assessed valuation is adequate to support the junior college on a special tax not to exceed 20 cents on \$100 of true valuation, plus state aid. From another source¹ it appears that Michigan sets no minimum limit, while Arizona sets \$5,000,000 as the minimum legal limit for valuation of the area which may organize and maintain a local public junior college. Only one of the four states setting a definite legal minimum limit has set it below \$5,000,000.

It is of interest in this connection to ascertain the valuations in areas actually organized for local public junior college purposes. In fifty areas of this kind the average valuation is \$28,300,000; the median is \$12,857,142.86; and the range is from only \$800,000 to \$175,063,150. Since the average is here influenced by a small number of areas having very high valuations, the median is the better measure. Only nine of these fifty local public junior colleges reported valuations below \$5,000,000, and only five reported valuations below \$3,000,000.

Mill levies for the support of local public junior colleges.—Reports from state departments of education in twelve of the eighteen states in which local public junior colleges are in operation failed to give data relative to the maximum legal mill levy for the support of institutions of this kind. This silence is undoubtedly due, in some states at least, to the fact that no such maximum has been set up. The reports from the state departments of education in Arkansas, Minnesota, and Mississippi indicate definitely that there is no legal limit, while the reports from Kansas and Nebraska indicate that the legal limit is 2.00 mills per dollar of valuation. The report from California indicates that the limit is 5.00 mills in junior-college districts, that it

¹ John Addison Clement and Vivian Thomas Smith, *Public Junior College Legislation in the United States*, pp. 25-26. Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin No. 61. University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. XXIX, No. 58. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois, 1932.

is 7.50 mills for junior college and high school combined in high-school districts maintaining a local public junior college, and that the maximum school-district rates may be increased by majority vote of the electors. In another study¹ it is reported that the maximum legal mill levy for local public junior college support is 2.00 mills in Texas and that the local boards of education in several other states determine the mill levy for junior colleges as they do for other public-school units. Reports from several local public junior colleges indicate that no maximum limit is set in Iowa, Michigan, Missouri, Oklahoma, and Washington.

In forty local public junior colleges the average levy was reported to be 1.15 mills and the median approximately 1.00 mill. The range was from no mills to 3.20 mills. Nineteen of the twenty-one junior colleges reporting a levy lower than 1.00 mill reported absolutely *no* mill levy for junior-college purposes. In other words, these nineteen junior colleges had to depend on some other source for financial support. Fourteen colleges reported a levy of from 1.00 to 1.99 mills; three reported a levy of from 2.00 to 2.99 mills; and two reported a levy of from 3.00 to 3.99 mills (actually the highest levy was 3.20 mills). Seventeen others reported that the mill levy was combined with that of the high school; eleven reported that the mill levy was combined with the entire school system; nine gave no data; and one gave obviously inaccurate data.

State aid for local public junior colleges.—On the basis of reports received from state departments of education, it appears that state aid is given local public junior colleges in only four states, namely, Arizona, California, Mississippi, and, under some conditions, Missouri.

The State Department of Education in Arizona reports that a lump sum of \$15,000 is appropriated annually by the state for each of its two local public junior colleges and that the local unit supplies additional funds as needed.

The State Department of Education in California says:

At the present time the apportionment received by junior-college districts is slightly in excess of the amount received by high-school districts for support of junior colleges, since the district junior colleges are guaranteed \$2,000 per

¹ John Addison Clement and Vivian Thomas Smith, *op. cit.*, pp. 34, 35.

junior college plus \$90 per unit of average daily attendance, whereas high-school districts receive only \$1,600 per junior college plus an average of approximately \$86.25 per unit of average daily attendance.

It is of interest to note that the state of California obtains this money from revenues received from royalties collected by the federal government; from leases and rentals of federal mineral lands lying within the state; and, when needed to provide the amounts specified, from the state general fund.

In Mississippi the State Department of Education says:

The state appropriated \$65,500 for the session 1936-37 and the same amount for the session 1937-38 to be distributed on the following basis: (1) 40 per cent to be distributed equally to the approved schools and (2) the remaining 60 per cent to be disbursed on a per capita basis, average daily attendance as of the first semester of the current session, including only students from within the state.

Since there were eleven approved local public junior colleges in Mississippi in 1936-37, it appears that each of these received a flat amount of \$2,381.82 from the state and that an additional amount will be received during the present school year in each college on the basis of units of average daily attendance. Harrison-Stone-Jackson Junior College, a public college which serves three counties, and Copiah-Lincoln Junior College, a public institution which serves two counties, reported receipts of \$7,000 and \$2,800, respectively, from the state of Mississippi during a single school year.

Although no data on state aid for local public junior colleges were supplied by the State Department of Education in Missouri, it appears from the report of St. Joseph Junior College that state aid in the amount of \$10,000 annually is received by this junior college for its work in teacher training. The dean of St. Joseph Junior College in a letter to the writer confirmed this assumption.

County aid for local public junior colleges.—Junior colleges seldom receive county aid except where the area organized for junior-college purposes is a county or two or more counties combined. In Arizona, Georgia, and Mississippi the county or joint-county junior colleges receive substantial county aid, and one county junior college in New Jersey is dependent on the county for housing facilities although it is otherwise apparently independent. In California and Kansas the

counties pay junior-college tuition for students who reside in the county but who attend a public junior college in some other district because their home district does not provide such a school. In California this fee is a flat charge of \$64 per unit of average daily attendance for use of buildings and equipment, plus an amount equal to the average current expenditure per unit of average daily attendance in the district attended, less the amount received from the state apportionment per unit of average daily attendance. In San Jose Junior College the total received per unit of average daily attendance for each of these nonresident students was reported to be \$265. In Kansas the counties pay from \$55 to \$72 annually for the tuition of Kansas students who attend junior colleges in the state and whose home district does not provide such facilities.

Township aid for local public junior colleges.—Township aid is seldom given a local public junior college except where the township is the area organized for junior-college purposes. In the present study two township junior colleges in Illinois reported receipt of substantial aid from their respective townships. The junior college at Red Oak, Iowa, reports that the township provides the building. St. Joseph Junior College at St. Joseph, Missouri, reports that \$18,000 was received during a given year from the township in spite of the fact that this junior college is classified as a city or municipal junior college. Ranger Junior College at Ranger, Texas, reports that twenty cents of each local maintenance dollar comes from the township. Indirectly, therefore, this junior college gets some aid from the township.

SUMMARY

Approximately 175 local public junior colleges are being operated in the United States in connection with public-school systems. These institutions are distributed among eighteen states. It is difficult to determine the annual instructional costs per student enrolled or per unit of average daily attendance in these junior colleges because there is lack of agreement on exactly what constitutes instructional costs and because the junior college is sometimes inextricably combined with the local high school or with the entire local public-school system. In forty-nine local public junior colleges the reported

annual instructional costs per student enrolled ranged from \$50 to \$310. In forty-one local public junior colleges the reported annual instructional costs on the average daily attendance basis ranged from \$65 to \$250. Half of the local public junior colleges giving adequate information on this item charge nonresident students higher tuition than they charge local students, but other charges are almost always the same irrespective of residence.

The principal sources of support for local public junior colleges are tuition, charges other than tuition, and the provision by the local unit of housing facilities. State, county, or township support is given in only a few states. Where the county or the township constitutes the area organized for junior-college purposes, substantial aid is usually received from the county or the township, but few of the junior colleges included in the present study are organized as county or township junior colleges. Not many states have set up a legal minimum valuation for areas which may organize for junior-college purposes. Only one state has set the minimum below \$5,000,000. Not many states have set up a legal maximum mill levy for support of local public junior colleges. Kansas and Nebraska have set the limit at 2.00 mills, and California has set it at 5.00 mills in junior-college districts and 7.50 mills for high school and junior college combined where the high-school district maintains the junior college. In forty junior colleges the average reported levy was 1.15 mills, and the median was approximately 1.00 mill.

THE RELATION OF HIGH-SCHOOL LATIN TO MARKS IN THE FIRST YEAR OF ARTS COLLEGE

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THE PROBLEM AND SOURCES OF DATA

In the rapidly accumulating wealth of investigations concerned with the relation between the pattern of subjects taken in high school and subsequent college marks, it is commonly found that, if there is any field of study in high school the pursuance of which tends more than other study to contribute to better marks in college, that field is Latin.

Sorenson found a low but material and positive relation between the number of units of high-school Latin and marks received during the first three semesters at Northwestern University, even when general intelligence was held constant.¹ In a study by Yates the high-school and the college transcripts of 706 graduates of three universities—University of Kentucky, Indiana University, and University of Cincinnati—indicate a strong presumption in favor of the college-preparatory values of the classical high-school curriculum.² Though Douglass found no material correlation between the number of high-school credits and college marks at the University of Oregon, he reported a higher coefficient of correlation with number of units in foreign languages than with number of units in any other field.³

¹ Herbert Sorenson, "High-School Subjects as Conditioners of College Success," *Journal of Educational Research*, XIX (April, 1929), 237-54.

² James Anderson Yates, *The Type of High School Curriculum Which Gives the Best Preparation for College*. Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, Vol. II, No. 1. Lexington, Kentucky: College of Education, University of Kentucky, 1929.

³ Harl R. Douglass, *The Relation of High School Preparation and Certain Other Factors to Academic Success at the University of Oregon*. University of Oregon Publication, Education Series, Vol. III, No. 1. Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregon Press, 1931.

In order to throw additional light on this problem, the writers studied the records of 1,025 men and women who entered the College of Science, Literature, and Arts at the University of Minnesota in the autumn of 1933. These students were classified in the following groups according to the amount and the combinations of foreign language studied in high school:

1. One unit of high-school Latin and no modern languages, 30 cases.
2. One unit of high-school Latin and some modern language, 35 cases.
3. Two units of high-school Latin and no modern language, 260 cases.
4. Two units of high-school French and no other language, 102 cases.
5. Two units of high-school Latin and one, two, three, or four units of French, 187 cases (approximately 83 per cent with two units, 8 per cent with one unit, and 9 per cent with three or four units).
6. Two units of high-school German and no other language, 85 cases.
7. Two units of high-school Latin and one, two, three, or four units of German, 91 cases (approximately 63 per cent with two units, 16 per cent with one unit, and 21 per cent with three or four units).
8. No high-school language units, either classical or modern, 126 cases.
9. Three or four units of high-school Latin and no other language, 34 cases.
10. Three or four units of high-school Latin and one, two, three, or four units of French, 47 cases.
11. Three or four units of high-school French and no other language, 28 cases.

Comparisons in this article are based on members of the respective groups remaining after cases had been thrown out to render the remaining group of approximately equal ability. The resulting paired groups were as follows:

1. No language paired with two units of Latin (Group 8 with Group 3), 103 pairs.
2. Two units of French paired with two units of Latin (Group 4 with Group 3), 84 pairs.
3. One to four units of French plus two units of Latin paired with two units of Latin (Group 5 with Group 3), 151 pairs.
4. Two units of German paired with two units of Latin (Group 6 with Group 3), 61 pairs.
5. One to four units of German plus two units of Latin paired with two units of Latin (Group 7 with Group 3), 65 pairs.

A comparison of the percentile ranks of the groups in college-apptitude rating is shown in Table 1.

COLLEGE MARKS OF THE VARIOUS GROUPS —

Differences in honor-point ratios for the first year of college work between groups of equal ability having had different types of high-school preparation in foreign languages are shown in Table 2. The following tendencies may be noted: (1) Students having had two years of high-school Latin make better marks in their Freshman

TABLE 1

MEAN PERCENTILE RANK IN COLLEGE-APTITUDE RATING* OF PAIRED GROUPS OF ARTS-COLLEGE STUDENTS HAVING DIFFERENT HIGH-SCHOOL TRAINING IN LATIN AND MODERN LANGUAGE

Group	Number of Students	Mean Percentile Rank	Standard Deviation
8. No language.....	103	55.4	18.0
3. Latin (2 units).....	103	54.9	18.6
4. French (2 units).....	84	61.1	19.2
3. Latin (2 units).....	84	60.8	19.6
5. French (1-4 units) and Latin (2 units)...	151	64.6	17.3
3. Latin (2 units).....	151	64.6	17.5
6. German (2 units).....	61	57.4	20.4
3. Latin (2 units).....	61	57.7	19.9
7. German (1-4 units) and Latin (2 units)...	65	68.0	17.9
3. Latin (2 units).....	65	68.7	18.0

* College-aptitude rating is the average of percentile rank in high-school graduating class and percentile rank on the college-aptitude test given to all Freshmen entering the University of Minnesota.

college year than do students with the same degree of college aptitude but with no training in foreign language. The difference of 0.16 of a grade step is not large enough to be completely reliable statistically, but the probability is no more than between three and four in one hundred that the student with no training in language really does better work in the first year of college. (2) The difference in favor of students having had two years of Latin as compared with students having had two years of French is slight and very possibly the result of chance. (3) Students having had one, two, three, or four years of French as well as two years of Latin apparently do no better in college than those with two years of Latin but no modern

language. (4) For some reason students who have had two units of high-school Latin do distinctly better than those having had two years of high-school German, the difference approaching complete statistical reliability and being greater than the difference between the two-year Latin group and the no-language group. (5) A small and statistically unreliable difference was found in favor of the pupils in the two-year Latin group with an additional training of

TABLE 2
MEAN HONOR-POINT RATIO IN FRESHMAN YEAR OF PAIRED GROUPS OF
ARTS-COLLEGE STUDENTS HAVING DIFFERENT HIGH-SCHOOL
TRAINING IN LATIN AND MODERN LANGUAGE

Group	Number of Students	Mean Honor-Point Ratio*	Standard Error of Mean	Diff. S.E. diff.
8. No language.....	101	.62	.07	
3. Latin (2 units).....	101	.78	.08	1.78
4. French (2 units).....	80	.86	.09	
3. Latin (2 units).....	80	.90	.09	.40
5. French (1-4 units) and Latin (2 units) ..	147	.84	.06	
3. Latin (2 units).....	147	.88	.07	.57
6. German (2 units).....	59	.69	.10	
3. Latin (2 units).....	59	.96	.11	2.46
7. German (1-4 units) and Latin (2 units) ..	65	1.28	.09	
3. Latin (2 units).....	65	1.18	.09	1.11

* The honor-point ratio was obtained by dividing the total number of honor points (3 honor points for every quarter credit of A, 2 for B, 1 for C, 0 for D, and -1 for F) by the total number of credits for which the student was enrolled.

one, two, three, or four years of German as compared with two-year Latin pupils with no training in German. The study of German may add something to the study of Latin which the study of French does not.

THE FACTOR OF NUMBER OF HOURS OF WORK CARRIED

In investigations such as this there is always the possibility that the relation between college marks and the variables being studied has been obscured or distorted by the differences in the amount of work attempted by the students. Data on this point are given in Table 3.

The differences in the mean number of hours completed would seem to affect the tentative conclusions previously stated as follows: (1) to emphasize and substantiate materially the superiority of the two-year Latin group over the no-language group and perhaps to

TABLE 3
MEAN NUMBER OF QUARTER HOURS COMPLETED IN
FRESHMAN YEAR BY PAIRED GROUPS OF ARTS-COL-
LEGE STUDENTS HAVING DIFFERENT HIGH-SCHOOL
TRAINING IN LATIN AND MODERN LANGUAGE

Group	Number of Students	Mean Number of Quarter Hours
8. No language.....	101	35.2
3. Latin (2 units).....	101	38.9
Difference.....		3.7
4. French (2 units).....	80	38.4
3. Latin (2 units).....	80	40.2
Difference.....		1.8
5. French (1-4 units) and Latin (2 units).....	147	39.3
3. Latin (2 units).....	147	40.3
Difference.....		1.0
6. German (2 units).....	59	38.2
3. Latin (2 units).....	59	40.7
Difference.....		2.5
7. German (1-4 units) and Latin (2 units).....	65	42.0
3. Latin (2 units).....	65	41.9
Difference.....		0.1

affect the greater superiority of Latin over German as compared to Latin over no language; (2) to lend a little more importance to the slight difference in favor of the two-year Latin group over the two-year French group; (3) to have little, if any, effect on the conclusion that pupils with from one to four years of French as well as Latin do no better in college than pupils with two years of Latin but no modern language; (4) to attach further importance to the marked

superiority of the two-year Latin group over the two-year German group; (5) to have no effect on the conclusion that there is a small difference favoring the two-year Latin group with an additional one to four years of German over the two-year Latin group with no German.

Differences between these various groups with respect to the number of incomplete courses, conditions, and cancellations were small and of no statistical reliability.

TABLE 4
MEAN HONOR-POINT RATIO IN FRESHMAN YEAR OF EQUATED GROUPS OF
ARTS-COLLEGE BOYS AND GIRLS WITH AND WITHOUT
TRAINING IN HIGH-SCHOOL LATIN

Group	Number of Students	Mean Honor-Point Ratio	Standard Error of Mean	Diff. S.E.-diff.
Boys:				
No Latin.....	165	.744	.060	
Latin.....	146	.789	.068	.495
Girls:				
No Latin.....	79	.865	.077	
Latin.....	73	.799	.091	.555
Boys and girls:				
No Latin.....	244	.784	.048	
Latin.....	219	.793	.055	.123

Another approach was also used in an attempt to hold constant the number of credits carried successfully, as well as ability. In order to carry out this plan and still have a sufficiently large number of cases to afford a basis for reliable conclusions, the writers found it necessary to ignore the factor of the amount of study of foreign language other than Latin. In Table 4 data are presented relative to the achievement of two groups: one having had Latin in high school and one having had no Latin in high school, without respect to the factor of other foreign-language study. It was startling, if not disconcerting, to find so small a difference in favor of the boys who had studied Latin, a difference in favor of the no-Latin girls, and an insignificant difference in favor of the Latin group when both sexes were combined. Two conclusions suggest themselves: (1) Investi-

gations of the value of the study of a given foreign language which do not hold constant the amount of study of some other foreign language are likely to yield misleading conclusions—conclusions different from those which may be expected if that factor is held constant, since the failure to study the given foreign language may be compensated for by the study of some other language. (2) The fact of having studied Latin is a measure of intellectual interest and industry in verbal activities which tends to differentiate among boys more than among girls; for girls, as investigations show, tend much more to achieve up to their possibilities.

SUMMARY

Apparently students who study Latin in high school may be expected to make, on the average, slightly higher marks in their first year at an arts college than pupils of equal ability who have studied German or who have studied no foreign language. In addition, the Latin students can make higher marks while carrying a slightly heavier program of work. The study of a modern language in high school adds nothing by way of assuring better marks in college for students who have also studied high-school Latin.

Two cautions occur to the writers in interpreting these data: (1) Possibly superior college marks are in part resultant from superior industry and interest in intellectual and verbal activities which, instead of being an outcome of the study of Latin, are probably reasons for the student's decision to study Latin. (2) The probable college-preparatory value of a subject must be judged, not only by the relation between the amount of study given to it and subsequent college marks, but also on the basis of the extent to which the student's selection of subjects in college is restricted by not having a foundation in the subject under investigation.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE ADMINISTRATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER AND GORDON N. MACKENZIE
Stanford University

Certain aspects of secondary-school administration have received increased attention in the publications of the past year. Some changes in the section headings of this list have been necessary in view of the shifting emphasis. "Population," "Student Maladjustment—Causes and Treatment," and "Staff" are the items on which the enlarged emphasis is most noticeable. The sections on "Marks, Records, and Reports" and "Attendance" have been dropped because of the absence of publications which seemed to the compilers deserving of inclusion. In the selection from the quantity of materials available, many descriptions of practice in a single situation and numerous presentations of opinion have of necessity been eliminated. Only materials which are generally available have been included.

GENERAL

518. AIKIN, WILFORD M. "Our Thirty Unshackled Schools," *Clearing House*, XI (October, 1936), 78-83.
A consideration of administrative changes, curriculum changes, and revisions of methods of teaching in the thirty schools working with the Commission on the Relation of School and College of the Progressive Education Association.
519. MAXWELL, C. R., and KILZER, L. R. *High School Administration*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Doran & Co., Inc., 1936. Pp. x+514.
A general book on administration, giving a clear and direct treatment of the various aspects of internal administration. Many examples of good modern practice are included. A representative bibliography accompanies each chapter.
520. ROSENLOF, G. W. "The Year 1935-1936—A Summary of Significant Facts," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XI (October, 1936), 176-89.
A valuable statistical summary, descriptive of the secondary schools of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Gives data on enrolment, type of organization, length of school year, length of the class period, pupil load, teachers, qualifications of new superintendents and principals, teaching load, library expenditures, and athletics.

521. WALKER, KIRBY P. "Recent Trends in Selected Mississippi High Schools," *School Review*, XLIV (September, 1936), 533-38.

Figures on enrolment trends, holding power, percentages of graduates entering colleges, teaching loads, and training of teachers in sixty-one Mississippi high schools for the period 1929-30 to 1935-36, inclusive.

POPULATION

522. BELL, HAVRAH, and PROCTOR, WILLIAM MARTIN. "High-School Populations Then and Now—A Sixteen-Year Span," *School Review*, XLIV (November, 1936), 689-93.

Compares the occupational levels of parents and the vocational ambitions of pupils enrolled in two school years (1917-18 and 1933-34) in six California high schools. Pupils in four California high schools are compared on the basis of intelligence.

523. EELLS, WALTER CROSBY. "The Scholastic Ability of Secondary School Pupils," *Educational Record*, XVIII (January, 1937), 53-67.

A report on the psychological testing program of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, involving 19,737 students in 198 schools. Data are grouped and classified by sex of students, class in school, individual schools, size of school, accreditation, and regions.

524. LIDE, EDWIN S. "The Social Composition of Chicago's New Junior-College Population," *School Review*, XLIV (November, 1936), 673-80.

Reports on 628 students in respect to ages and nationalities of students and parents, fathers' occupations, and students' vocational choices. Comparisons are made with other recent studies.

525. OUTLAND, GEORGE E. "The Social Composition of New Haven Community College," *School Review*, XLIV (November, 1936), 667-72.

Reports on two hundred students in the Community College of New Haven, Connecticut, in respect to age, birthplace of students, birthplace of parents, number of children in family, and occupations of fathers.

526. PUNKE, HAROLD H. "Home and Family Background of High-School Pupils," *School Review*, XLIV (October, 1936), 597-607.

Reports information from a questionnaire study based on 3,467 Georgia and 3,369 Illinois high-school pupils. Some of the items considered are size of family from which pupils came, sex and sibling position, graduation of older siblings, and mortality of parents.

527. PUNKE, HAROLD H. "Factors of High-School Enrolment by Region and Sex," *School Review*, XLV (March, 1937), 200-209.

Data based on the 1930 United States Census and the *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1930-32* are presented by states to show the relation of secondary-school enrolment to marriage and gainful employment of boys and girls. The important implications are indicated.

SIZE OF CLASS

528. EASTBURN, LACEY A., and GARRETSON, O. K. "Class Size Investigations in the Phoenix Union High School," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XI (April, 1937), 413-20.

A carefully controlled investigation of the effect of class size on achievement, as measured by standardized and other objective tests. The experiment included three teachers and fifteen classes in eleventh-grade English.

STUDENT MALADJUSTMENT—CAUSES AND TREATMENT¹

529. DOUGLASS, HARL R., and CAMPBELL, INA. "Factors Related to Failure in a Minneapolis Junior High School," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVII (November, 1936), 186-89.

An intensive study of thirty-seven pupils in a Minneapolis junior high school who were failing in two or more academic subjects. The study covered age, grade status, intelligence, attendance, socio-economic status, and achievement-test scores.

530. GARINGER, ELMER HENRY. *The Administration of Discipline in the High School*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 686. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936. Pp. viii+106.

Report of an investigation covering 312 high schools throughout the country. Information was secured on the seriousness of various offenses, forms of punishment, and results of disciplinary practices.

531. JOHNSON, WILLIAM H. "The Problem of Truancy in the Chicago Public Schools," *School and Society*, XLV (May 15, 1937), 665-72.

Relates the history and the nature of the truancy problem in Chicago and describes the special school arrangements which have been made to care for truants.

532. TURRELL, A. M. "Factors Related to Scholarship at Pasadena," *Junior College Journal*, VII (February, 1937), 248-54.

A study of four factors that are related to scholarship at Pasadena (California) Junior College, namely, the curricular offering, the guidance service, attendance and scholarship, and the scholastic probation plan.

GROUPING AND OTHER ADAPTATIONS TO
INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

533. HERR, WILLIAM A. "Junior High School Accelerants and Their Peers in Senior High School," *School Review*, XLV (March and April, 1937), 186-95, 289-99.

A careful study and evaluation of the senior high school achievement, with respect to scholarship and certain social factors, of three groups of pupils

¹ See also Item 464 (Douglass and Wind) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1937, number of the *School Review*.

who were accelerated by one year during the junior high school period and of a comparable group of nonaccelerated pupils.

CAFETERIAS¹

534. BRYAN, MARY DE GARMO. *The School Cafeteria*. New York: F. S. Crofts & Co., 1936. Pp. xvi+726.
A thorough treatment of school-lunchroom problems. Organization, management, staff, records, menus, equipment, legislation, and other aspects are considered.
535. ESSEX, DON L. "Planning Cafeterias for Multiple Use," *School Executive*, LVI (December, 1936), 136-37.
Presents plans for using the cafeteria as an activity room. Line drawings of cafeterias are included.

STANDARDS AND ACCREDITATION

536. CARROTHERS, GEORGE E. "A Co-operative Attack on Secondary-School Standards," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XI (January, 1937), 271-77.
A statement of the history, activities, and future plans of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards.
537. ELLIFF, JOSEPH D. "A Counter Attack on Secondary School Standards," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XI (April, 1937), 372-75.
A criticism of the approach used by the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, a defense of present standards, and suggestions for refining and improving them.
538. ROEMER, JOSEPH. "National Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, No. 65, pp. 14-17. Chicago: Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association (5835 Kimbark Avenue), 1937.
A brief description of the history and work of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards.

PUBLIC RELATIONS

539. BRISTOW, WILLIAM H. "The High-School Parent-Teacher Association," *Clearing House*, XI (November, 1936), 142-45.
Many suggestions as to purposes, projects, and successful handling of parent-teacher associations.
540. ELLIS, BYRON E. "Journalism in a Public-Relations Program," *Junior College Journal*, VII (December, 1936), 126-30.

¹ See also Item 221 (Ettinger) in the list of selected references appearing in the March, 1937, number of the *School Review*.

A statement of the purpose of publicity, the elements in a publicity program, and the place of the journalism department in this program.

541. HARLOW, REX FRANCIS. "Compton Junior College Shows the Way," *Junior College Journal*, VII (February, 1937), 240-44.
An analysis and evaluation of "The Hopes of Every Age," publicity booklet of the Compton (California) Junior College.
542. HOLLINSHEAD, BYRON S. "The Community Junior College Program," *Junior College Journal*, VII (December, 1936), 111-16.
A description of the organization and the functioning of Community Advisory Committees of the Scranton-Keystone Junior College, La Plume, Pennsylvania.
543. SHANNON, J. R., FRIDIANA, SISTER M., GABRIELIS, SISTER M., and LEON-ARDILLA, SISTER M. "Problems That Principals Would Like To Lay before Parents," *School Review*, XLV (May, 1937), 364-67.
A questionnaire study of the problems on which principals need the co-operation of parents. Replies are included from 143 principals and teachers who aspire to become principals.

LIBRARY SERVICE

544. ALDRICH, GRACE L., and FLEMMING, CECILE WHITE. "A Library in Action in a Modern School," *Teachers College Record*, XXXVIII (February, 1937), 389-404.
Describes the equipment, administrative regulations, activities, and materials of the library of Horace Mann School of Teachers College, Columbia University.
545. DICKINSON, C. W., JR. "What Services May Be Expected from a Good School Librarian?" *American School Board Journal*, XCIII (August, 1936), 19-20, 68.
A description of the personality and duties of the school librarian and an indication of the services that a library should render.
546. FROELICH, HELEN. "Function of a Science Divisional Library," *Junior College Journal*, VII (April, 1937), 349-52.
Describes the development and the functioning of the science divisional library at Stephens College. Figures are presented on circulation before and after the establishment of the divisional library. Student and faculty opinions are noted.
547. HELLER, FRIEDA M. "The School Library in an Integrated Program," *Clearing House*, XI (March, 1937), 416-21.
A description of the library program of the University School, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. Activities of the library, pupil activities, uses of the library, and administrative arrangements are indicated.

548. MOHRHARDT, FOSTER E. (Compiler). *A List of Books for Junior College Libraries*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1937. Pp. xii+378. An annotated list of approximately 5,300 titles compiled for the Carnegie Corporation of New York Advisory Group on Junior College Libraries. Only books in print are included, and prices are given. Books are arranged alphabetically by subject fields.

STAFF

549. DOUGLASS, HARL R., and STROUD, RAYMOND B. "The Education and Teaching Load of Science Teachers in Minnesota High Schools," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXII (September, 1936), 419-26.
Information is presented on 1,024 teachers of science in respect to degrees, major and minor fields of preparation, number of classes taught, the number of subjects taught, the combinations of subjects taught, salaries, and experience.
550. KOCH, HARLAN C. "The Superintendent Judges the Principal's Contribution to Secondary Education," *School Review*, XLIV (October, 1936), 590-96.
Reports a questionnaire study of the opinions of 104 superintendents with regard to the contributions which the high-school principal has made to the advance of secondary education.
551. KOCH, HARLAN C. "The High-School Principal Looks at Himself as Educational Leader," *School Review*, XLV (June, 1937), 452-58.
Reports a questionnaire study of the judgments of 172 high-school principals concerning the principal's contribution to secondary education. Comparisons are made with the judgments of superintendents which are reported in the preceding article by the same author (Item 550 in this list).
552. REAVIS, WILLIAM C., with the co-operation of EDWARD C. BOLMEIER and WIPPERT A. STUMPF. *Relations of School Principals to the Central Administrative Office in Large Cities*. Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, No. 66. Chicago: Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association (5835 Kimbark Avenue), 1937. Pp. 368.
A series of case studies reporting the practices of eighteen large cities with respect to the relations of principals to the central office.
553. SIMON, DONALD L. "Causes of Turnover among Principals," *School Executive*, LVI (July, 1937), 434-35.
A study based on questionnaires and personal interviews. Political, professional, personal, economic, community, and miscellaneous factors are discussed.
554. "Subject-Matter Preparation of Secondary School Teachers," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XI (January, 1937), 278-97.

Report of the Committee on the Subject-Matter Preparation of Secondary-School Teachers of the North Central Association. Includes: I, "Introductory Statement" on the history and the activity of the committee, by F. E. Henzlik; II, "The Preparation Recommended by School Officers and Teachers," by William S. Gray; III, "Special Problems Resulting from the Number of Sections Taught," by Edward F. Potthof; and IV, "Teacher-Training-Pattern Study," by Henry H. Hagen.

555. WALLGREN, A. SAMUEL. "Duties of the Junior College Registrar," *Junior College Journal*, VII (March, 1937), 302-7.

A summary of a questionnaire study of the functions of the registrar in 199 junior colleges.

556. WALLGREN, A. SAMUEL. "Personnel Study of Junior College Registrars," *Junior College Journal*, VII (April, 1937), 370-75.

Report of a questionnaire study of the training, professional interests, experience, and salary of junior-college registrars.

CLASS SCHEDULES

557. HUNT, R. L. "A Fusion High-School Program," *American School Board Journal*, XCIII (November, 1936), 46.

Describes the program at Madison, South Dakota, in which extra-curriculum activities are scheduled throughout the day, and regular subjects are held only four periods a week. Pupil and teacher opinions, problems, and criticisms are considered.

558. MCLEARY, RALPH D. "Scientific Schedule Building. II," *American School Board Journal*, XCIII (July, 1936), 46, 72.

Emphasizes procedures for eliminating conflicts.

Educational Writings

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

A trio studies twins.—A biologist, a psychologist, and a statistician have pooled their special information, skills, and efforts in the most intensive and extensive study of twins yet made in order to secure better evidence on the role of nature and nurture in human development.¹ A valuable introduction surveys previous studies of twin resemblance, the methods of diagnosis of identical and fraternal twins, and the causes of differences among identical twins reared together. Two general approaches have been utilized in the presentation of the new material. The first is a comparison of the resemblances and the differences of fifty pairs of identical and fifty pairs of fraternal twins reared together. Known genetic differences are thus contrasted in broadly similar environments. The second method is an analysis of the likenesses and the differences of nineteen pairs of identical twins reared apart. In this method heredity is the constant and environment the variable. In the choice of subjects, age limits of about eight and eighteen years were set up, and all selections were confined to pairs of twins of the same sex. Twin pairs were classified as identical or fraternal on the basis of both general resemblance and statistical criteria. Various physical measurements were taken, and an extensive schedule of mental, educational, and personality tests was applied to twins in the study. The authors point out that the fetal-membrane method of diagnosis, even when available, is valid only for fraternal twins since there is no clear relation between chorionic conditions and similarity tests in the case of identical twins.

As would be expected, the identical twins are more alike than the fraternal in most of the characteristics studied. The resemblance is greatest in physical traits and decreases successively for intelligence, educational achievement, and personality. Identical twins, whether reared together or apart, tend to remain very similar in many respects. Significant differences, however, are found in weight, intelligence and school achievement for identical twins reared apart. Heredity appears to be important in determining the general level about which a pair of identical twins reared apart will vary. It is highly important to note, however, that the differences found are not random differences. They tend to be

¹ Horatio H. Newman, Frank N. Freeman, and Karl J. Holzinger, *Twins: A Study of Heredity and Environment*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937. Pp. xvi+370. \$4.00.

correlated with estimated differences in environment. The environmental influence is most apparent in educational age, with a correlation of .91 between scores on the Stanford Achievement Test and the amount of educational opportunities of twins. The effect on the Binet intelligence quotient is less, with a corresponding correlation of .79. Differences in the quality of social environment also show appreciable, though less marked, relations to mental and achievement differences. In the case of separated twins, differences in physical environment and health history show significant relations to differences in weight and to differences in total scores on the Downey Will-Temperament Test. Interesting statistical methods are presented to determine the relative weight of genetic and environmental factors in accounting for twin differences under particular conditions. The material does not lend itself, however, to a generalized statement, since the contributions vary according to the genetic resemblance present and the magnitude of the environmental difference. In essence, the authors have found that genetic similarity produces physical and behavioral similarities. Differences are produced when dissimilar environments operate for a period of time. Various traits are unequally influenced by environment. In certain traits dissimilar environments may make identical twins as much unlike as fraternal twins reared together. In closing, the authors express their sympathy for Jennings' dictum that what heredity can do, environment can also do.

If the study were to have been begun in 1937 instead of 1926, the investigators no doubt would have attempted to make more systematic use of observations and judgment in the area of behavior and personality. Paper-and-pencil instruments are of uncertain validity for the purpose. No explanation is given for the omission of some standard schedule for socio-economic factors. Such schedules did not appear commercially, however, until shortly after the date of the initiation of the study. Judges, reading the case material obtained in interviews, agree closely in their appraisals of the educational, social, and health differences in the environments.

The research reported will be an indispensable reference for the college instructor in human psychology and for the student of eugenics and euthenics. The chapters on human-interest stories and case studies will fascinate both general and technical readers. The reviewer's thirteen-year-old daughter gave these her absorbed attention for over an hour.

WILLARD C. OLSON

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A treatise for progressive high-school principals.—This book¹ was listed as one of the sixty best educational books of 1936 in the *Journal of the National Education Association* for April, 1937. It is a companionable volume, lucidly written and devoid of technical terminology to a marked degree.

¹ C. R. Maxwell and L. R. Kilzer, *High School Administration*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Doran & Co., Inc., 1936. Pp. x+514. \$2.50.

When the book was announced, the reviewer wondered how publishers could justify additional volumes in this field. However, the following features justify the publication.

First, the authors' recommendations abound in sound common sense and are therefore exceedingly practical. Although their point of view is progressive, it is not theoretical. This fact, evidence of which is scattered through the entire volume, accounts in part for the distinct appeal which the book makes.

Second, although the book emphasizes the administration of the smaller high schools—a field which has been badly neglected—the principles and practices which it advocates are basic in schools of all sizes.

Third, the authors have assumed that secondary education includes Grades VII through XIV and that the high school, as a terminal institution for most individuals, must assume the socialization of these pupils. Thus, preparation for college becomes a minor function.

Fourth, administration is set up as a truly co-operative enterprise. How the principal multiplies his effectiveness manifold when he shares his administrative responsibilities with his teachers, and on occasion with his pupils, is clearly revealed.

Fifth, the problems and exercises at the close of each chapter are not academic; neither do they give the impression that they were added as an afterthought. Instead, they are closely related to the daily administration of a high school and therefore are an integral part of the authors' discussion of that field.

The book represents a well-rounded concept of the principalship. The selection of specifics to be discussed was doubtless a basic problem. Although the hazards and the limitations of the office have not been neglected, there are so many areas of the principal's work which are still unsettled in schools large or small, either because scientific procedures have not been evolved or because definiteness of function has not been achieved, that in the reviewer's judgment the inexperienced principal would have been given additional help if these had been specifically catalogued. This comment holds, for instance, in the case of guidance and the supervision of teaching.

A similar comment might be made in regard to the authors' treatment of the high-school library. They could have hammered much harder the fact that, in the vast majority of smaller schools, libraries simply are nonexistent and that the principal's only recourse is to appeal to nonstatutory sources while he struggles to systematize support through regular channels.

Finally, in the excellent treatment of public relations, specific ways of keeping both teachers and pupils informed about school matters could have been indicated to advantage, since this area is relatively uncultivated. In certain schools some very interesting and effective things have been done along this line, although little has appeared in print. Again, more distinct emphasis could have been put on the non-newspaper publicity value of school activities in general, although such a value is implied.

In view of the superior quality of this treatise the foregoing criticisms are doubtless of minor importance. The book deserves the thoughtful scrutiny of progressive school executives, for it argues strongly for the professionalization of the principalship.

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Youth and its education.—Declining birth-rates, expanding secondary-school enrolments, unemployment, juvenile delinquency, and other factors direct attention to problems of youth, from the standpoint both of the individual and of society. New agencies have come into existence to study these problems, and a timely report of one such agency has appeared.¹

The book attempts to summarize important facts and trends in the field considered, to show the relation of these facts and trends to a practical philosophy for our time, and to outline what seem promising means of implementing that philosophy. An introductory chapter reviews the "Basic Theory and Definitions" of secondary education, from which the author distils his own theory, noting the social function of secondary education, emphasizing the supplementary relation of schools to other institutions, and stressing "scientific open-mindedness on all matters . . . with indoctrination in favor of free speech, freedom of thought and discussion, a liberal attitude and tolerance towards all views and opinions" (p. 8).

A chapter differentiates six objectives of secondary education known to professional readers—citizenship, home life, recreation, vocation, health, and personality—and sets forth a seventh—continuance of study throughout life—which merits consideration. "The Problems and Needs of Youth" are reviewed in chapter iii by means of data and conclusions concerning youth's capacities, interests, and desires, and the skepticisms of youth with respect to the status of vocations, home life, customs, and government. In chapter iv social changes and trends are summarized, with particular reference to home, industry, transportation, communication, recreation, government, and international relations. Chapter v, "A Program of Universal Secondary Education," considers the present selective character of American secondary education, the need and capacity of youth for universal and continuing education, the role of the federal government in a program of universal secondary education, and co-operation between schooling and employment in the education of youth.

The last two of the seven chapters focus the discussion of the preceding chapters on present secondary education and on suggested changes to give better adaptation to current needs. Extensive consideration is given to curriculum, method, school organization, staff, extra-curriculum functions, and financial support. Numerous proposals for redirecting secondary education and for need-

¹ Harl R. Douglass, *Secondary Education for Youth in Modern America*. A Report to the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education. Washington: American Council on Education, 1937. Pp. x+138. \$1.00.

ed experimental studies are sketched, preceded by concise statements of underlying premises.

The book does not assume professional training on the part of readers, and professional readers who are alert to the literature of social change as it bears on youth and education will be familiar with much of the background material of the first five chapters. Such readers, however, can profitably skim through the summary presentation of that material by way of refreshing themselves on underlying factors in American society, upon which the author bases his "implications" for existing secondary schools and "proposals" for future changes. The implications and the proposals are indeed worthy of consideration by professional workers in education and related social sciences, as well as by laymen.

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Source material for the study of the curriculum.—For effective understanding of any field it is necessary to draw on reference materials from a variety of sources. Especially is this true if one seeks to attain an appreciation of the trends in the reorganization of the curriculum. Conflicting points of view regarding the social responsibility of the school, the concept of the curriculum itself, and the philosophy of education which should guide curriculum development, to cite only a few examples, render imperative an acquaintanceship with writings widely scattered in the educational literature. As an aid in this extensive reading, a work¹ has appeared which assembles many of the most significant contributions to the discussion of curriculum development.

According to the authors, the choice of materials in this volume was based on the following considerations: (1) authority of the source, (2) clarity and effectiveness, (3) range of point of view, (4) availability of the source, and (5) recency of the source.

Some of these bases for selection deserve particular attention because they add much to the value of the book. In the case of range of point of view, effort has been made to include materials which set forth as strongly as possible all important positions regarding controversial issues rather than to use the volume to champion any particular set of opinions by weighting the selections in favor of these views. The book will be found to contain equally valuable and effective selections representing conflicting opinions. The readings are presented without comment since the authors have already made clear their opinions in an earlier work (*Curriculum Development*. Chicago: American Book Co., 1935).

Another commendable feature of the compilation is that, where violence would not be done to other considerations, the selections have been made from sources not easily accessible. In numerous instances materials pertinent to the

¹ Hollis L. Caswell and Doak S. Campbell, *Readings in Curriculum Development*. Chicago: American Book Co., 1937. Pp. xviii+754.

problems of the curriculum have been selected from books or extended discussions which are devoted to other topics and in which only a limited amount of material is related to the problem in hand. This plan serves to bring to light much valuable material that might readily be overlooked by workers less intimately acquainted with the field.

A survey of the book will also reveal due recognition of the effort to bring the program of the schools into line with changing social and economic conditions in American life. A new realization of the significance of these factors for the school has given direction to curriculum development in the past decade. It is fitting to find that the readings selected are recent and therefore reflect this trend.

The volume contains 271 selections organized under the chapter headings used by the same authors in *Curriculum Development*. While this organization has much to commend it, the usefulness of the book need not be limited to this particular approach to curriculum problems. The wealth of valuable reference material represented may readily be reclassified by one familiar with the field. The publication should serve as a valuable source book, particularly for persons who must work in situations where professional library facilities are limited.

OLIVER R. FLOYD

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Biography in the secondary school.—"The purpose of this selective reference outline¹ of collective biography is to supply useful material for all subjects in the curriculum, as well as a guidance outline for free reading" (p. 9). Readable, interesting, and brief biographies are usually difficult to locate when they are needed. Miss Logasa has indeed performed a real service in analyzing 293 collections of biography suitable for use in the secondary school.

The present volume is a revision of an earlier (1933) book published under the same title and with the same general arrangement. The revised list includes fifty-four books not analyzed in the original edition.

The book is divided into four parts: (1) "Introduction," a discussion of the values of biographical materials and of effective methods of using them in the junior and senior high school; (2) "Key to Collections Analyzed," a list (arranged alphabetically by authors) of the 293 collections analyzed, together with key letters, bibliographical data (publisher and date of publication in addition to author and title), and an annotation for each title; (3) "Biographical Index," an alphabetical list of all persons whose biographies are to be found in the collections analyzed, together with the key letters and pages of the books in which each is included; (4) "Subject Index," a list of persons classified according to the fields of their activities and alphabetically arranged under the headings of "Humanities," "Science, Biological and Physical," and "Social Science."

¹ Hannah Logasa, *Biography in Collections: Suitable for Junior and Senior High Schools*. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1937 (revised and enlarged). Pp. 132. \$1.25.

Among the features of the list which add to its value are: (1) classification of persons under curriculum subjects (chemistry, mathematics, art appreciation, economics, etc.); (2) indication of the difficulty of materials; (3) selection of books on the basis of Miss Logasa's extensive experience as an educator and a librarian; and (4) convenient arrangement of materials for use.

Since this list is primarily planned as a guide to materials already available and only incidentally as an aid to book selection, the prices of the books listed are not given. In the opinion of the reviewer, statements of the cost of each title would have added to the value of the book, particularly in small schools where bibliographical aids are limited.

Miss Logasa's list of biographies in collections is more than a carefully compiled and usable selective bibliography; it includes a practical discussion of the use of biography in teaching. As an aid to book selection it will be helpful to librarians and teachers. As an aid to teaching and learning it will have value for school administrators, supervisors, librarians, teachers, and pupils. As a guide to reading for pleasure it will stimulate the interest of anyone who wishes to increase his acquaintance with outstanding personalities of this age and of past ages.

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